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Methods ... AND Outlines

IN

UNITED STATES HISTORY

For Use of Pupils and Schools
of All Grades

By J. A. JOSEPH

President of Central Normal College, Danville, Ind. Teacher of History and Literature, and Author of Institutional History of the Colonial Period.

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METHODS AND OUTLINES

IN

UNITED STATES HISTORY.

If the present is the fruit of the past, there is no more valuable study than history. But the value depends so much upon the method of study and the means of presenting it. It is impossible to secure a correct comparative value of any study, for one teacher will make it of a much more or less value than another. But studies do have an inherent value. Arithmetic develops the mind in a certain way and has a certain purpose. The same is true of geography or history. The teacher ought first ask himself why do we study this subject or that one. Where does it most naturally apply, and how may it be best applied? In teaching a subject, then, I would consider the two parts; first, value; second, methods; or *why* first and *how* second. I shall use that plan in dis-

cussing methods of teaching United States History.

First, define our study. What is history? Cicero says, "It is the witness of times, the light of truth, the mistress of life." Diodorus calls it "the hand-maid of Providence, a priestess of truth and a mother of life." Dionysius says, "History is philosophy teaching by example." Guizot defines it thus: "History is a great school of truth, reason and virtue." The above definitions are not definite, and for definitions only are not good, and of course are not intended as definitions properly. They are given that the student may feel he is entering upon a field embracing life itself in all its thinking, feeling and willing activities; that it does "present all times, all truths, all life;" that it is "Providence working and philosophy teaching," truly a "great school of truth, reason and virtue." Why man works, and for what he works, why he worships, what he worships, and for what he worships; what he studies and why he studies; the causes and effects of his oratory, his wars, his law making, his moral progress and political development; all are history. Leave any one out and we do not study history. Facts, dates, etc., are the least part of the whole, and yet they too are necessary. If I were defining history for advanced pupils, and I would not define it for lower grades at all, I should say, History is a record of the past. It is a simple definition, certainly, but it includes

all thought, all feeling, all willing, as they record themselves in the progress of the ages. And that is what history is. Its causes and effects, which should always go hand in hand with advanced work, make the Philosophy of History.

Now why should we study history at all? First, it possesses the greatest guidance value among the several branches. There is much truth in the old saying, "History repeats itself," and that ages differ more in kind than in degree. Where one age develops a fact of civilization in a certain way, or works out an advanced position for man, it will do it much the same way another time. There are certain inevitable truths controlling the ages, and when an age repeats itself, the corresponding truth will be found leading its movements. The things that killed Greece would kill America; the force that united the world under Rome, would unite the world again. The elements that destroyed Rome, would destroy any empire in any age. A late profound scholar and historian has said: "The present is the fruit of the past, and the germ of the future. No work can stand unless it grows out of the real wants of the age and strikes firm root in the soil of history. No one who tramples on the rights of a past generation can claim the regard of its posterity. History will disregard him who disregards her." Set at naught the lessons of history, and no man shall wield any lasting influence.

The statesman reads the future like an open

book ; the prophet foretells events with certainty ; the moralists may read the doom of nations ; the student may depict the fate of his race. The Christian is a better man, because of the "lamp of experience" history lights at his bidding ; the citizen is a safer factor when he may and does "read the future in the past." First and foremost, then, history should be studied for its guidance value. It is there we may be warned against the cheats of the world and learn what the future shall be.

Secondly, history taught, even in the driest, poorest way, by simply repeating facts and dates is an excellent training for the memory, and, if presented in all its truth and life, it yields to none in this development. Memory should receive from the study of history its most valuable help; but so much of this depends upon the plan of study of which we shall speak below. Again, history, when led beyond dry details, becomes a vivid picture. One should see the great forces at work and take a stand on all the mental, moral and physical battle-fields and watch their results. History should become a man-picturing and world-building process ; thus it reaches and develops the imagination. The judgment is aided no less in its growth. History is made up of complex incidents. The Revolution is a single fact, but how complex are its origin, and effects, etc. All the simple facts are likely complex and require an analysis to fully under-

stand them. We must compare, contrast, judge, analyze and make decisions, if we would fully understand all in history. Original thought, close application and careful study are as necessary here, as in arithmetic or grammar. Here, too, facts must be understood, and understood in the same way one would solve a problem. The judgment has its place in this study. In all questions of history there are two sides. There is room for debate. There are so many forces at work one can not easily say this is so, or that is true. Historical knowledge is largely moral in its nature, and our ideas depend so much on training, environment and interest, that it is difficult to form a correct judgment. Uncertainty is so great a factor—the element of probability so important—that it would seem very clear that in history we may secure the needed discipline. Man is the study. The judgment only can follow him always. Perhaps we may mistake purposes and form incorrect judgments, but the study and carefulness are giving the discipline.

As a means of broad and liberal culture history has but one superior, and that is literature. Culture comes from a knowledge of men and of the world from a study of man; history affords this. Last but not least, perhaps foremost as a practical element, is the development of patriotism, love of country. When we think that a large per cent. of our children leave school early or do not study history, and many thousands of foreigners are set-

tled among us each year with no ideas of our institutions, we easily feel the need for something that will early give the pupil some idea of his country and cause the foreigner to first learn the nature of the country he has adopted. We love best when we know what we love and why. We are most patriotic when we think what our country has cost in blood and money. I would have every boy and girl's blood mount to the cheek, the heart throb more quickly, the eye flash with patriotic fire and love; I would have every foreigner's loyalty pass with him to his American home and have him proudly shelter himself under the American flag. There is no quicker, easier way to do this than to teach them the magnificent history of their native and adopted country.

History should, and does when rightly studied and presented, do all the above and much more that the writer can not tell. So much depends upon the method of study, however. In discussing that part of our work it is best to take up first what I think to be the chief force—the teacher. If in any branch of study the teacher needs to be the living voice, the real life of the class, it is in history. Method is good, and a study of methods is valuable and needful to the highest success of the teacher, but the tendency of the present system is all method or too much so. Methods are secondary always, at least to one factor in teaching if not to two. There are teachers and those not teaching who would never be successful, no

difference how much they studied methods, and no one can be successful who makes methods the chief factor. It is a craze that is already turning back toward the truer plan. Above all method and above all other qualifications of the teacher is that of *mastery of the subject.* It is absolutely impossible to teach history successfully if the teacher does not know the study. He should throw books to the wind and stand before his class prepared to handle that lesson without any reference to books or any hesitancy in decisions. *Mastery of the subject* is the first requisite, as far as the class in hand need it. If one is not willing to perform that first requisite there is nothing in this or any other work anywhere that will help him. But that done, and one may be successful without any very systematic study of methods. If one would be a great teacher of history let him first know history. Holding that to be the first and great requisite, I could not do better than to quote a few other helpful qualities: "Retentive memory, logical power to analyze and group facts, enthusiasm for the subject, sound judgment, clear insight into character and life, devotion to truth, persistence, vivid imagination and a copious supply of clear and simple language."*

I would call the teacher's attention to the need of enthusiasm in his work. In that we can well say, as is the teacher so is the pupil. In arith-

*Hinsdale.

metic and a few other studies some degree of interest might manifest itself in spite of the teacher, but that will seldom, if ever, be true in history; the fire must catch from the teacher's own heat. Enthusiasm is not noise, it is putting the soul into the work. It can not be counterfeited. Sympathy is an element of help to both teacher and student. A study of history tends to broaden our convictions, to destroy prejudice. Indeed, the historian must be careful or he will become an apologist, an extreme to be avoided, for all things in history have not been for the best, and all heroes have not been great factors in advancing civilization. But we must learn to stand on the same ground our hero did, and judge from his age and his environment. 'Tis the same with principles. They may be right for one age and wholly wrong for another.

The teacher should live in close contact with current events and be a student of them. In this country he has an excellent opportunity to do so. The daily paper carries to his door the news of government, religion, education and politics, so that he may learn history as it is made and teach it so. He should familiarize himself with local history, with old landmarks, battlefields, noted buildings, important men, locally and nationally. By drawing current events and local history and government into the study history becomes a reality, present and living. Every pupil should be taught to give a little time each day to public affairs as they pass across the stage. Just book

knowledge is too little. We must experience history to know it and teach it well. Lastly I would suggest that the teacher make himself acquainted with general literature—study poems, novels, speeches, biographies, etc. When fitting, study a poem in connection with the history lesson. "Barbara Fritchie," "Evangeline," "Hiawatha," "Miles Standish," "Green Mountain Boys," Cooper's works, Henry, Webster and Clay's speeches, "The Scarlet Letter," "Uncle Tom's Cabin" and many other valuable authors and works the teacher should know.

The teacher's ideal should be high, though he should never reach it; the fact that he has an ideal will make him a better teacher. No labor should be thought too difficult and no reasonable expense too much to require of one's self to be able to do work right. 'Tis true the pay is not very great, but the consciousness of doing work well is worth the trouble and expense of so doing it. A forty-dollar teacher who will not try to do work worth one hundred dollars will likely never secure that amount.

Methods, as has been said above, we believe to be a secondary matter. The chief part of the work lies with the teacher and his understanding of the subject; but there is something in methods, indeed, quite a great deal deserving of study. But before taking up that subject it should be understood that no cast-iron scratch-book methods are believed in. After ten years' experience the writer

should have gathered a few facts on the subject and some general truths that may help some one, but *no two teachers can use successfully one method, nor can the same teacher use one method successfully for two different pupils or classes.*

Methods depend upon the teacher and pupil, and as no two of either are alike no cast-iron rule will hold good always. The author frankly says to the teacher that if he is studying the outlines and methods given in this little book that he may use them just as given, and like a machine he will fail, and ought to do so. Rather study them carefully, take from them what seems good for the purpose, apply it as the needs seem to demand, and if this work helps the intention of the author is fulfilled. Did the reader ever notice the old bird feed its young? If so he knows how the young receive the food. They shut their eyes, open their mouths, and the food drops in. Now, that is the way many teachers study methods. It might answer if the teachers and schools of methods were wise as old birds, but they are not, therefore the student should not act the part of the young bird. Much teaching of method is simply experimental work; so if the mouth be opened to receive the food, be sure the eyes are open also. Do not use any method blindly. *Be an independent student. Be an independent teacher.* Don't say a thing is right because some one else said so. If there is anything in the world a teacher should question it is methods. There is nothing in the

world in which there is more sham. Be careful of educational "fads." Now, if the reader and author understand each other and the former is ready to study the following unprejudicedly and independently, the latter shall try to tell of some plans he has found to be good as a general system, but he has often been discouraged in his efforts to teach, and no doubt there is much in his plans that is not the best, but he hopes there is also something good.

The first question that presents itself is, Where should we begin and when? We should begin teaching United States history the first year, and the place to begin should depend on just what interests the child most. The work, of course, must all be story-telling. The teacher should tell those stories that interest most. Sometimes it will be best to read the story as told by some one else. The teacher must be the judge of all these things. In the first two years only this kind of work can be done. Time, place and geography have no use in the work here. Dates should not be mentioned, but the stories should be of the nature of the heroic, giving examples of kindness, self-control, courage, patriotism, justice, etc. Order and accuracy are not so important in this work. The main purpose should be to interest the child. If the story illustrates a fact that interests and develops the higher nature, accuracy and order are not important. Myths and legends are good. Pictures are helpful. The teacher should have one

or all of these few books, viz.: "Monroe's Story of Our Country," price 66 cents net, published by Lee & Shepherd, Boston; "Pratt's American History Stories," 4 vols., each 36 cents net, published by Educational Publishing Company, Boston, and "Eggleston's First Book of United States History," 60 cents, published by American Book Company, Cincinnati. For the first two years the above books would probably answer all purposes. Any teacher may find time to do this work to advantage; two lessons a week would answer, or even one. But two lessons a week, fifteen minutes to one-half hour in length, would be sufficient. If necessary, this could take the place of some other work that often per week. Nothing would make a better language lesson than one of these stories. For this work we would suggest Wright's "Children's Stories in American History," price $1.25, published by Scribner's Sons, New York; also, "Children's Stories of American Progress," same author, publisher and price, will be valuable aid to this work. Two or three of the books mentioned above would perhaps furnish lessons enough for the first two years' work, after which time the work could be changed, though of that fact, as of other things mentioned, the teacher must carefully use his own judgment.

The third year the work should differ more in degree than in kind. If the teacher feels it right to do so, the work should be advanced slightly, but still it must be made up of the story and biog-

raphy. The child is now, perhaps, nine years old, and is able to grasp some method in the work. I would not take up more time than in the previous grades, and would use the lessons much the same. The pupil now can make more individual use of the story and be more independent of the teacher, but the teacher should not forget the value of a well-told story or one well read. The books given for first and second years' work will fit here too. Some such method or system of placing the history into periods as the following would be good, and let the pupil work in that period which he likes best and hear those stories that most interest him without regard to order of taking them up: First period, exploration; second, colonization; third, wars; fourth, national period. The teacher could take these in order if desired, but it would be best to use the period affording most interest and deal lightly, of course, with the events and men without regard to dates, causes, effects, etc. To the books above, if the grouping system is used, "Blaidsell's Stories of the Civil War," Lee & Shepherd publishers, Boston, price 35 cents; "Johonnot's Stories of Our Country" and "Stories of Heroic Deeds," by same author, 30 cents and 40 cents each, American Book Company, Cincinnati, Ohio, and "Moore's Pilgrims and Puritans," Ginn & Co., Chicago, 60 cents, would be good books to add, and they are also cheap.

Coming to the fourth year, the work of geography should be added, or rather the two should

be connected. It would certainly be best in this grade to group incidents, and subgroup them, as follows: Period of Discovery, subdivided into the national explorers, English, French, Spanish and Dutch, taking up one at a time. If the Period of Colonization, the colonies could be divided into Northern, Middle and Southern Colonies. A few dates should be learned now, such as 1492, 1607, 1776, 1789, 1861, etc. Supplementary reading should be introduced, giving two lessons per week as in previous grade. All points of interest now should be located on the map, and local points and history learned. Here again use the stories most interesting, and be satisfied with the story for the lesson learned. Manners and customs can be introduced to advantage. No pupil but would grow intensely interested in knowing the dress, furniture, amusements and mode of living generally among the colonists. Eggleston's History is an excellent work for this last study, as are also Higginson, Scudder, and Joseph's Institutional History. McMaster is the best authority on this line of history, but his work is too voluminous and costly for the average teacher. The books mentioned for third year are suited for the work in this grade also. Dodge's Stories of American History, Lee & Shepherd, Boston, price, 35 cents, would be a good work to introduce here. The teacher must remember he does not need all the books mentioned, any one or two would answer. Several are given that he may have his choice.

Do not forget that from this grade on always connect history and geography. Valuable language lessons may be made from the work in this grade and the following. Running on through the fifth, sixth and seventh grades, we could but repeat much that has been given for fourth year. Each year adding a little more system, a few more dates, always leading as rapidly and deeply as the pupil should go. Gilman's Historical Readers, 3 vols., 36 cents, 48 cents and 60 cents, respectively, published by Interstate Publishing Co., Boston, and Lee & Shepherd's Young Folk's Series, added to the above books, will be useful and inexpensive. Much of the work in these grades could be given as supplementary reading and language work, two or three times a week. Poems, speeches and articles written for special events should receive attention. Many important dates and events should be fixed, and quotations learned. The teacher, always on the alert, will be able to introduce many things useful and interesting. Up to this time the pupil has used no text-book and has not really studied history in the sense he should now take it up, but what a wonderful amount of information will have been gathered; all useful, even though he should quit school now, as so many do. The pupil is now from fifteen to eighteen years old, and is ready to begin a careful, systematic text-book work on the subject. This work we will discuss now, and though the pupil

has not had the work proposed in the previous grades, I should proceed with him the same or nearly so as if he had. He has reached the maturity when he should be able to enter into causes and effects, the logical relations of things, and to take up the complete systematic life of the people. If he has done the work as indicated above in all the grades, we at once see he is in excellent condition for the work to follow. He has ideas and facts already, and what is more, loves his country deeply and appreciates its history. But perhaps the majority of teachers will have many pupils who have not studied history in any way and do not like it to begin with. The teacher then has a delicate task before him. His duty is to make a future citizen of our country love the history of that country. The writer has succeeded in doing this a few times under very adverse circumstances in his own work in the common schools. It was done by seeming not to do it—by arousing the interest of the pupil in such way that he did not know the end aimed at, and seemed to only be following his own inclinations in the matter.

Let the teacher have on his desk such books as Barnes' History, Eggleston's, Higginson's or Coffin's. Casually place one in the hand of the pupil over which he may pass a few minutes' time in looking at the pictures or reading some parts of the book. Gradually an interest will awaken, and, by judicious handling, the pupil will often volunteer to take up the work.

From this time on, the topic or outline system is the best method. Let the outline follow some certain text in most part, but no one text-book should be made to answer for the work now. Investigation should be made necessary, and the pupil taught to find his information from every source. He should learn to handle books and to know them. The outline system is a great help to this work. The outline found in this book will aid the teacher in making his own more perfect, it is hoped, but the writer, although the author of the "Outline," would not advise a blind use of it. On general principles, every teacher should make his own topic list for the lesson. He knows the needs of his class and the nature of his outlines, and can fit the two together better. To repeat the warning: Be careful how you use the "cut and dried" methods of another.

A good text-book is a very necessary aid to the best work. Of these, we are not overburdened. Indeed, when two books are named out of the many, many volumes written for text-book purpose, we have the number best adapted to school use. Others are too much mere compilations, the authors of which have not felt the true needs of a text-book on United States History. Certainly, in writing a text-book, an author is very much limited. He must have it of suitable expense, and that means not too large, nor too well arranged with maps. So something must be left out, and too often we leave out the important things.

Facts and dates are important of course, but we should make them of secondary importance and put more time in on the life of the people, the government, education, religion, manners and customs, causes and effects, logical relationship, growth of institutions, development of great political and moral questions, science of warfare, influence of geography, in short, development of church, state and people. Let these things be primary facts, and the others of less importance, and learned while studying the civilization of the people, and as they are needed to assist in this. While we have no text-books that actually do this, yet the teacher should make these things prominent. Johnston's History is, as far as the writer knows, the best text-book up to date on United States History. Montgomery is good. Both of these are superior to the other works because they go into the developing process more than other books. Joseph's Institutional History is a good book for teachers and advanced pupils. But the real text-book of United States History is to be written.

The above mentioned books, "Voice of the People," Johnston's American Politics, and Dictionary of American Politics, are a few of the books the teacher and pupil should have access to. There are many other excellent works that will aid, and the teacher should fit his work to the books at hand. Encourage a wide use of books and maps. Do not forget the value of maps in the work here. Study all questions in connection

with their geography. A text-book should have good maps and plenty of them.

A good division of United States History for study is the following, viz.: Discovery and Exploration, 1492–1607; Colonization, 1607–1776; Continental Government, 1776–1789 and National Period, 1789 ——. Taking these up in the order given, each should be treated fully as its importance requires according to time at disposal. Comparatively not much time need be spent on the period of explorations. Each nation should be taken up separately. The pupil should memorize the most important dates and explorers, and the land explored or discovered. Much of the work here will be a mere matter of memory and may be treated as such. It is a good exercise to have the student write in a given time, one minute or two minutes, all the dates he remembers and of which he can tell something, from 1492 to 1607. In reviews, name the English explorers and give dates of explorations, and so on with the other nations. The teacher should also have a spelling exercise on the proper names of persons and places, and by all means use the geography. Give special study to the life of Columbus, also to the Indians. In a few days' drill, the class will have fixed these names, places and dates, and can leave them for the next step, which as a matter of history is very important, and should have every attention. Don't forget the value of reviews; every day a few

minutes should be used in fixing more certainly some point.

Now the class is ready for the second period, Colonization, 1607–1776.

It is best to study the colonies separately, and to take them up in the order of their settlement, beginning with Virginia and ending with Georgia. *Time*, *purpose*, *place*, *education*, *religion* and *government* are the important points to learn. Many other things enter into the work here of course, but these are the leading facts to bring out. and by studying these facts and discussing them, most all other things of importance will be brought out. The boundary of each colony should be fixed, as should the claims of each of the nations and disputed territories. After going over each colony thus carefully and learning the particular features of each, they should all be taken and compared and contrasted, bringing out the like and unlike parts. Compare the Northern Colonies with the Middle Colonies and with the Southern Colonies, also the Middle Colonies with Southern Colonies, in all the above points, as well as in their products, mode of living, nature of people, amusements, system of labor and manners and customs in general. Study the different laws made by each colony, and make an especial effort to get the exact government of each colony just before the Revolutions. Slavery, intemperance, the money system, banking, and trade, are all important. Now is the proper time to give attention to the influence of

the geography, climate, physical outlines, etc., and to the reasons of English success and French, Spanish and Dutch failures. Several religious sects should take our attention, the Jesuits, Huguenots, and Pilgrims especially. The Churchmen of Holland, Quakers, Catholics, Churchmen of England, Presbyterians, Methodists, etc., are important. The Germans, Irish and Scotch form an element in the progress of the colonies. After this study, we at once see the pupil will have secured a living and personal idea of colonial life. He will have placed himself in close sympathy with it and studied its life from the standpoint of the colonists themselves. The teacher will feel amply repaid for any extra work it may have cost. Joseph's Institutional History of the Colonial Period is a good work on above points.

In this period we have several wars that affect us more or less, but none of which need much attention except the French and Indian war. This is important from the fact that it is the final struggle between the two leading European nations for supremacy in the New World, and as such it should appear to the pupils. Here is a good place to emphasize that long fight and its results, also the results had the end been different. If the great Mississippi valley had been held by the French nation and the Jesuit missionary, what would have been the probable results? An excellent authority on this subject is Parkman's "Fifty Years of Conquest," also "Montcalm and Wolfe,"

2 vols., by the same author; sold by Little, Brown & Co., Boston, $1.50 per vol. No more critical period of our history lies anywhere in the four centuries of our discovery and life than in this struggle for the New World between the French and English. When the pupil sees and feels that this war means all this, he then can go into the war in its parts, taking up the battles. A good plan here is to take up first the objective or important points for which the struggle must be made. Never study a war just for the sake of the war, but for its causes and effects. Again, never study a battle just for the sake of the battle, but for its causes and effects on the struggle at hand. So here Fort Duquesne, Crown Point and Ticonderoga, Quebec, Niagara and Louisburg, all in the beginning of the struggle held by France, are not important in themselves, but are very important to the nations at war, and these must be taken before France is conquered. Fort Duquesne is the key to all that territory in dispute, the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, which are lined with French forts and missionary posts from New Orleans to Fort Duquesne. This taken and the rest here is easy. The same way it should be shown that the party holding Crown Point and Ticonderoga holds the pass from Canada into New England, and that Niagara is the key to the lakes and a great fur region; that Quebec is the American Gibraltar and the key to the St. Lawrence, while Louisburg controls the fisheries of the river and gulf. Stir-

ring incidents are here, and American patriotism first finds a place in American history.

In closing a war the teacher should always be careful as to treaties, and in none more than in this one. Here we see France practically swept off the continent, Spain's territory made definite, and England reaching to the Mississippi and from Florida north into Canada. Holland long ago gave up her territory, and now the next struggle must be not for territory, but that greater thing, independence. Englishmen in old England against Englishmen in New England. This struggle comes next, and America is stronger for it because of the days from 1754–63.

The pupil here has government and war to watch. He should now know that the colonists in their colonial government have well-developed governments, such as our state governments of to-day—two legislative houses and a governor; sometimes the governor appointed by king or proprietor and sometimes elected by the people, as was also the upper house, but the lower house always elective, and that through the Revolution and after to this day no radical change has been made in our state governments in their form. (See Joseph's Institutional History.) Understanding this, the state governments may rest and the time be put on the national government during the Revolution on till 1789, when the constitutional period begins. Have the pupils understand why and how the Continental Congresses met; how the

delegates were appointed; how long each Congress lasted and what each did; how the second Continental Congress became the national house during the war, made the Declaration of Independence and Articles of Confederation and otherwise controlled and governed as it had power. This is a very interesting as well as important topic, and should be understood. Here is the foundation of our government, or, rather, I would have the pupil see it so, for I would not, with a class of this kind, trace the principles farther back; but the teacher will teach the subject better if he can trace the underlying principles back to their origin in the Teutons of the Middle Ages. Let not the teacher sleep till he knows he can make his class see the old forefathers making political history just as it was fashioned out and the reason it was so fashioned.

Understanding the government now, we can pass to the war, and by careful, earnest study place in logical connection the causes of the war, dating ten years back, at least as far as the stamp act. In this one act of Parliament there is a good lesson. First, what was it? Then, what effect on the colonists? Study the colonial assemblies, the National Congress, the different organizations that grew out of the efforts of the people in their resistance. Note why the people resisted so bitterly and what effect all this had on Parliament, and then after its repeal that the people still resisted because of the declaratory act in the repeal, show-

ing that the people are not resisting taxation, but the great principle of non-representation—no voice in government.

Now, the six years' resistance begins 1770. Parliament imposes commercial taxes, places Boston under military government, and seeks to deceive the people on a tea tax. These were followed by resistance all along the coast, Boston Massacre, Boston Tea Party, Four Intolerable Acts, resistance in Philadelphia, Rhode Island, New York, Charlestown, etc., at last culminating in the First Continental Congress, which petitioned the king, hoping he would lend his influence to the colonists in their fight with Parliament. Following on this are the Second Continental Congress and war. By this time, if all has appeared in its logical connection, the pupil understands the causes of the war and knows whether or not he, too, would have fought the self-same battles. Now he may take up the battles and study them in their causes and effects. (See Frothingham's Rise of the Republic.)

Here, with the hope of assisting the teacher, the author will only relate what he has found to be a good plan, and give it very much as he would to a class. Lexington and Bunker Hill have been fought, it is supposed, and the pupil has passed over the ground on his map which he must always keep before him. Their causes are understood and their effects, and we stand with Washington overlooking Boston, held now, as for six years, by the British under military control. Howe is

moving out under agreement that he shall not be disturbed, and in return agrees he will not burn Boston. Why this agreement? Why did not Washington capture Howe if he was strong enough to drive him out, or Howe move out and take Washington if he was strong enough to make terms with him? And why did Howe move up to Halifax? First, Howe was not strong enough at this time to defeat Washington and he thought it a wise plan to retreat, if possible, till England should have time to reinforce him. This he could better do if Washington would not interfere. In turn, Washington could not take Howe without the latter burning Boston, as he threatened to do before he could be captured, so the agreement was made that Howe should leave unmolested and should not burn Boston. Then Washington marched into Boston and the first move was won. Howe retreated to Halifax because there were supplies and reinforcements, a kind of base of supplies for the British. Now England made her plans to subdue the colonies, and Washington planned to defeat their efforts. He was placed on the defensive. The plan of the British was a good one. Howe, the general, seconded by Clinton on land and Howe, the admiral, on the sea, was to move on New York, capture that place, move west towards Philadelphia and take that city, the seat of government. Burgoyne was to move south through New England and join Howe, thus cutting the north from the south, conquer it and

annex it to Canada, that it shall not have so much power politically.

Washington must meet this, which he does, by placing his own army at New York and a second force north to head off Burgoyne. Washington retreated north, with the hope of drawing Howe north from Philadelphia and keep between him and Burgoyne. Then he went west in the famous "retreat" to protect Philadelphia. He captured Trenton and Princeton more to inspire and encourage his men than for any other reason. The British, being somewhat checked, brought up their forces by the Chesapeake and up the Brandywine to Chad's Ford. Washington moved south of Philadelphia to head off this move, but was defeated and driven back and the British moved into Philadelphia, where Washington attacked them soon after at Germantown, a suburb. Howe accomplished his purpose, but what of Burgoyne? Gates now had taken charge of the army in the north and succeeded in harrassing Burgoyne, cutting off his supplies, etc., till nothing remained but a surrender, and the decisive battle of the war was won by the Americans. This surrender should appear in full force to the student of the war. It is classed as one of the world's decisive battles. If England had won, what then? Then Burgoyne, unopposed, would have moved south, placed Washington between himself and Howe, forced a surrender, and practically ended the war then and there. But the Americans won, and

what then? First France, on the strength of this victory, acknowledged the independence of the colonies. This in itself was helpful, but she soon went farther and made a treaty of alliance with them which meant everything. Now England had a strong foe at home to combat; and this was not all. This alliance bringing on war between England and France called Spain into the struggle against England because of the natural enmity and because Spain, having great possessions on this continent, it was better for her that the colonies should be independent than that England should join her with the heart and civilization of the New World. In the next year, 1780, Holland joined the alliance against England purely for commercial reasons. Holland had become a great commercial nation. She needed the Mediterranean, the waters along the coast of South America and Mexico, and the Mississippi river. The great coast nations of Europe: France and Spain, with their colonies, were open to Holland if she joined the alliance and were not if she did not. To hold her industry unimpaired she joined an alliance that could not work her much harm.

So this is the picture, at home England is at war with France, Spain and Holland. In her colonies she is at war with the Americans, who are assisted by the French. All this because of the victory over Burgoyne. Hope is a glimmering star in the distance, steadily growing brighter from now on.

The French fleet coming over, Clinton, who had succeeded Howe, now ordered the troops back to New York where they could co-operate with the English fleet. Washington followed and attacked the British at Monmouth and then settled his army down around New York to watch Clinton, and keep him inactive if possible, which he did the remainder of the war, till Yorktown, three years, 1778–1781.

The scene now changed. All hope of subduing the North was given up, and the war was carried to the South, for as the British said, "A half loaf is better than none." Now the pupil should follow the movements of the two armies, keeping the map before him, and always ready to tell why each move was made and each battle fought until Cornwallis was ordered by Clinton to move to the coast, somewhere convenient to New York, as the French had sent over another fleet, and the land forces were wanted on the coast to co-operate with the English fleet if necessary. Cornwallis left Lord Rawdon in the South and went to Yorktown with his army. Now began a series of brilliant movements. The French fleet prevented the English from sending assistance to Cornwallis by sea. Washington ordered a part of the forces in the South to come up to Yorktown, and by a series of strategies made Clinton believe he was preparing an attack on him while he was planning a move on Yorktown. When too late, Clinton saw his mistake and started north to draw Washington

after him, but failed. He could not reach Cornwallis by land without passing through Washington's army. He could not by sea for the French fleet. Cornwallis could not leave Yorktown for the same reasons. The great Revolutionary "Chess-board" was near the last move. Cornwallis, the king of the board, had no other move, he was undefended. He could only surrender, and this he did. The rest is soon told, practically this ended the game. Peace had come and a new star had risen in the constellations of the world's great nations.

Let the pupil now understand the government through this period, the change from the Articles of Confederation to the Constitution, and we are then ready to begin the National period. A few days should be spent on the Constitution that the pupil may certainly know the principal points in the three departments: executive, legislative and judicial. (See Any Civil Government and Fiske's Critical Period.)

Beginning with Washington, it will be found a good plan to take up the administrations in their order, discussing the topics under each as it seems profitable; but the teacher should be sure that the history is kept together in its connections. The pupil should see the banking system as a whole, and understand its parts as well, the admission of states in their order should be memorized, political parties should be traced, and the principles understood. Slavery should form a well connected

story in all its causes and effects, the tariff the same, and the money system in all its phases studied. Draw out the difference between the banking system of the first forty years of our national history and the present system. Study also the state, private and corporation banks. Bring out all the above topics in all their causes and effects from the first to the present. If possible, have present in class, bills showing the nature of currency, state and "Wildcat." Especially with the currency of the present should the pupil familiarize himself. The "bank note," "silver certificate," "gold certificate," "greenback" and "treasury note," the different currency of the present, should be understood in their origin, value and security. All this done and the pupil becomes a citizen understanding his government. Nor is this too much to ask the teacher and pupil to know. Of course, many minor matters will fasten themselves to all these questions, and by the time the work is finished all important matters will be understood. The teacher should feel that history is to be understood, not merely memorized. The different wars, of course, will play a part in the work on administrations. It will not require much time to dispose of the War of 1812 and the Mexican War. Use the same methods here as in the Revolution, and notice carefully treaties. In this connection, it is proper to speak of the different settlements and extensions of our boundary lines.

This is too important to receive but a passing notice. Keeping in mind our boundary in 1783, the growth should be a matter of care to the class. (See Institutional History.)

The one great fact in the national period is the Civil War. The most difficult subject in United States History to teach and the least understood, perhaps, by the teacher, mainly because we are likely to feel there is nothing in a war to *understand*. It is all *memory*. Battles! Battles! Battles! What is there to understand! There is the place we make our mistake. There is much to understand, after which there will be little necessity for memorizing. With causes that date back to our beginning as a nation, with effects that never shall be erased in time, with the pent-up history of our existence bursting forth in shot and shell, a race freed, a doctrine in government, one thousand years old settled, millions of lives lost and money spent, what is there not to understand! Shall it take another century to find out its true meaning? It need not. Get into the struggle with the class and work your way out, and some idea of the bloodiest war in history will present itself. It is supposed, of course, that the great questions of slavery, tariff and "states' rights" have all been carried down to the civil war period, and that the pupil already sees sufficient cause for war; that peace is not possible, and that war, and war alone now can settle the old, old questions and make the states a true union.

Parties having been carefully studied, the questions as they appear in politics are also understood. From Jackson to Lincoln, the careful student has met with difficult things in our history. All outside reading matter possible should be used. "Life of Clay," "Life of Webster," "Webster's Speeches," Rhodes' "History of United States from 1850 to 1860," "Voice of the People," "Houghton's American Politics," Stephens' "History of the Civil War," are all good books, any of which the pupil would do well to read. The teacher should certainly do so. If the teacher will master his work once, he will not need to do so again. Forgetting comes from not understanding in a great degree.

Taking up the war proper, the class should drill on Buchanan's administration that it may learn the steps leading directly to the event. Here the parties of the campaign of 1860 should be studied, that the pupil may know the policy of the time, and also the direct result of the election and why it so resulted. South Carolina, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas seceded just after the election, and because of the success of Lincoln. The other seceding states had a different motive. These states called a convention for the purpose of regulating the question at issue, and when the power had thus passed from the hand of the people into the hand of the convention, the people had little directly to say concerning disunion, though they manfully

followed the lead of the delegates through a struggle unparalleled in history. The teacher and pupil must here free their minds of prejudice and look upon the struggle as students deserving only to know the truth; this, prejudice can never teach, especially is it necessary that the teacher be not known for his politics or religion in teaching history. All questions should have their due weight. In the Civil War the teacher must be neither North nor South, Democrat nor Republican, but an American citizen teaching the bitter struggle of his great country.

When the delegates elected by the people to the state conventions met they decided to hold a national convention at Montgomery, Ala., and delegates were sent by the different state conventions. All the above states had now passed "ordinances of secession" and all sent delegates to Montgomery immediately except Texas, which sent later. Here the Confederate States of America were formed and Jefferson Davis and Alexander Stephens elected provisional president and vice-president, and a provisional constitution was made, to stand till a permanent one could be formed or till one year from the inauguration of the president, whichever should first occur. In this constitution all legislative power was vested in the Montgomery Convention, as was also the executive power until the president should be inaugurated. It provided that the president should be elected for one year or until the provisional

government shall be superseded by the permanent. He was to be elected by the convention by ballot. The permanent constitution, which was finally adopted February 22, 1862, and under which Mr. Davis and Mr. Stephens were elected president and vice-president, changed many things in the provisional constitution. Two houses of Congress were organized with much the same powers and duties as under the United States Constitution, and were elected the same. The president and vice-president held office for six years and were elected same as the United States president. In all things except slavery, state rights and tariff the Confederate Constitution agreed very nearly with the United States Constitution. Slavery and state rights were the corner-stones of the confederation, and a protective tariff was made impossible.

The above brief survey of the Confederate Government is given here, somewhat out of place, perhaps, that the teacher may be sure to make it a part of his work and enter on the study of the war with an understanding of both governments.

This being finished, the pupil may now begin on Lincoln's administration, where the different steps will soon bring him to the declaration of war by the Montgomery convention. Fort Sumter was fired on soon. It being a southern fort made it very necessary for the South to secure it. Up to this time and after, the South had the advantage in the struggle on land, as most of the leaders of the army from the South had resigned and gone

home to take part with their state, but on the sea it was different. Many naval officers remained with the Union and fought so through the war even against state and sometimes against brother.

When the Confederacy fired on Fort Sumter and it was forced to surrender, though defended so heroically by a southern general, the Union made a call for troops to put down the rebellion. This call being met easily and preparations for war being made rapidly by the Union, resulted in four more states seceding, viz., North Carolina, Tennessee, Arkansas and Virginia. These seceded, not because Lincoln was elected, but because the government intended to make war on sister states for seceding, claiming that while it was best to be in a Union, no part of the states had a right to *force* any other part to hold to the Union. Through sympathy and the doctrine of state rights the states joined their fate with the Confederacy, making now eleven. Kentucky, Maryland and Missouri voted to remain neutral, but found to their sorrow that there was no such place to fill in the awful contest at hand. So each sent soldiers to both armies, but all remained in the Union. Missouri voted itself out, but was forced back by the people of the state. Mr. Lincoln issued his Blockade Decree, closing the ports of the South, which the South, looking upon itself now as an independent government, considered an international question, and immediately declared

war. Now the curtain rises, and before it falls four acts are played, in which a million men die and blood flows like water.

The pupil here enters on his most difficult part of United States history. I shall tell the story as I would present it to the class, and hope it may help many over this most difficult period. Here by all means do not forget the value of the maps. Trace out every movement of both armies, locate all battles and learn the causes and effects of each. It will be helpful to follow each division of the Union army through the entire war, thus keeping a connected story and making it more easy to remember.

Twenty miles below Washington is the ill-fated field of Bull Run, twice the defeat of the North. Below is a confident southern army looking towards Washington and the North. Above is a careless and confident army that shall seek to defend Washington and prevent an invasion of the North and also capture Richmond. The result is well known. The North has learned a bitter lesson; the South has hers put off four years, but it is only more bitter when learned.

General Scott, who had fought through two wars, was made major-general in the war of 1812 and lieutenant-general in 1859, was general-in-chief of the Union army, and soon resigned after the battle of Bull Run. General McClellan took his place with the title of major-general. General

Beauregard was general-in-chief of the Confederate forces, and had charge of the forces in person at Bull Run. The remainder of 1862 was spent by the two armies in organizing and drilling magnificent armies. Now all knew a terrible war was just ahead.

To conceive the line held by the Confederate army the beginning of 1862, take the map and trace a line across the country from the Mississippi, Island No. 10, and Columbus to Forts Henry and Donelson, Bowling Green, Mill Springs, Cumberland Gap, east to Bull Run and the coast. In the west and center this line was in command of Albert Sidney Johnston. It was the purpose of the Union to break this line, open the Mississippi river and take Richmond. General Halleck was made department commander of the west, General Grant had a small army of 15,000 men at Cairo, and General Buell was in Central Kentucky with 100,000 men. In the east was General McClellan with 200,000 men, a magnificently drilled and equipped army. General Joseph E. Johnston, general-in-chief of the Confederate army, had command in person here, and Beauregard was in the west under General A. S. Johnston. The Johnstons have stationed their men on the military chess-board and placed them well. McClellan, seconded by Halleck, and he by Grant and Buell, must take the "king." Richmond is the "king." To do this the line must be broken and the Mississippi opened. The place to

strike it, concluded McClellan, Halleck and Grant, was at Fort Henry. Broken here, the center must retreat south to cover its base of supplies at Corinth and to get nearer the Mississippi, also to protect the railroad running from the west across to Atlanta, carrying supplies to the east from the great southwest. Grant moved on Fort Henry, which escaped across the country twelve miles to Donelson, which, after a siege, surrendered to Grant with 14,000 prisoners February 12, 1862. The line was broken. The whole line moved back into Tennessee, and Corinth was made the point of warfare by both armies, it being the base of supplies for the southern army; but before reaching this there must occur the first great battle of the war—Shiloh. Grant's army, increased to 40,000 men, moved by boat up the Tennessee river and camped at Pittsburg Landing. Buell was ordered to join him. Tennessee was now under military government, with Andrew Johnson as military governor. To prevent this junction of Grant and Buell, General Johnston resolved to surprise Grant and defeat him before Buell arrived. The surprise was made and the Union army at first suffered the disadvantages, but was saved by the gun-boats. That evening, April 6, 1862, Buell arrived and the Confederate army was driven from the field, with their great commander, A. S. Johnston, killed. Beauregard took command. The victory was claimed by both armies, but the Union army held the field, and no doubt had the

advantage, though it lost the most men, 13,000, against 11,000, and had the most, 57,000, against 40,000. General Halleck now took command in person and proceeded to Corinth, the great railroad center, defended by Beauregard. As Halleck advanced, Beauregard evacuated and Corinth fell into the hands of the Union. In the meantime New Orleans had fallen. Island No. 10 was taken, and Memphis, so that the Mississippi river was open south to Vicksburg, and north to Port Hudson, about 100 miles, in a straight line below Vicksburg. The west had done its work well. Now trace the line on the maps and it will be found in the southern boundary of Tennessee. But the war was not over. It had merely begun. Go now to the center with Buell opposed by Bragg. Grant is near Vicksburg, where we leave him this year, having failed to take the city, it being on a bluff so high gunboats could not reach it. Bragg, who had superseded Beauregard as commander of the Confederate army in the west, resolved on a bold stroke, to invade Kentucky and hold it for the South. Louisville was the goal; the race began and Buell reached it one day in advance. Bragg stopped, remained in Kentucky about a month, plundering, and then turned south, pursued by Buell, when Perryville was fought; an indecisive result, though the Confederates escaped to Chattanooga, with their entire booty, forty miles in length. For this Buell was removed and Rosecrans placed in charge at Nash-

ville. Again Bragg started north and Rosecrans met him at Murfreesboro and drove him back into Chattanooga, where we leave the armies watching each other at the close of the year.

In the east things have gone worse. Almost constant fighting has been kept up. General McClellan, with his magnificent army, moved against Richmond. He moved by boat to Fortress Monroe to escape the rivers and swamps and fortified Confederates by land. General McDowell was left with a part of the army at Fredericksburg, and Banks in the Shenandoah valley to protect Washington.

General Johnston moved south rapidly to protect Richmond. Yorktown was the first fortified place between Fort Monroe and Richmond and was attacked. From here the army moved to Williamsburg. The Union gunboats held the James to within eight miles of Richmond. The Confederates were now back in the intrenchments of Richmond. McClellan placed his army on both sides the Chickahominy to be near McDowell, protect Washington and also attack Richmond. The river rising, placed the army in bad position, and thus divided, Johnston attacked the division on the Richmond side at Seven Pines and Fair Oaks. Johnston was wounded at the latter place and Lee took his place and kept it the rest of the war. Just here the Union army was outgeneraled. Jackson threatened Washington and Stuart made a raid around the Union army, doing much damage.

McDowell was called back nearer Washington, and McClellan's plan was balked. He was left alone to extricate himself, with his army divided. Lee ordered Jackson back to Richmond and prepared to strike McClellan north of the Chickahominy and cut him off from his supplies on the York. This was attempted at Mechanicsburg and Gaines Mills, in the seven-days' battle. Now McClellan moved to unite his army by moving south to the James. In this retreat he fought at Savage Station, Frazier's Farm and Malvern Hill, where he succeeded in uniting his forces. Pope, in the meantime, had taken charge of the forces near Washington, and Lee sent Jackson north to attack him, where again, on the Bull Run battle-field the Union forces were completely routed. Several changes were made in the officers along here. Halleck was made general-in-chief of the armies in place of McClellan, who was blamed for his slowness at Antietam. Grant was made commander of the department of the west, and Burnside took charge of the Army of the Potomac. Halleck was moved to Washington as advisory chief, where he remained during the rest of the war, and is no more in the field. He became chief-of-staff when Grant was made lieutenant-general. Going back a little, McClellan, after the Bull Run defeat, was ordered north by boat. Lee followed and joined Jackson. McClellan took charge of the forces around Washington, and Lee moved to invade the north. McClellan pressed closely after and forced a fight at Antietam, where

Lee was forced to give up his plan and turned south again. Here McClellan was censured for his slowness, and Burnside took charge. He attacked Lee at Fredericksburg, mainly because the War Department ordered it and the North clamored for a battle. Burnside knew he would be defeated, as the South had every advantage. So it was, and Joseph Hooker took his command.

Going to the west, Grant had taken Vicksburg and moved to Chattanooga, where an interesting move had been made. We left Bragg shut up in Chattanooga by Rosecrans. Now Rosecrans is shut up by Bragg. Why this change? Bragg skillfully moved out of Chattanooga south-east in hope to draw Rosecrans after him. The ruse succeeded. Bragg turned on Rosecrans at Chickamauga and drove him back into Chattanooga and fastened him in, where he was almost forced to surrender before he was reinforced by Grant. The battle of Chattanooga was a victory for the Union and Grant went east to take charge of the Army of the Potomac, with full charge of all the armies in the field. Sherman was left to oppose Bragg, who retreated south to Dalton, Georgia, where General Johnston was put in command. Thus we leave 1863 with the advantage very much in favor of the Union on land, though on sea no great gains had been made.

The year 1864 opened badly for the South. It had but two great armies, Lee's 62,000 men, Johnston's 75,000. Grant was against Lee with 116,-

000 men and Sherman against Johnston with 100,000 men, and a united effort was to be made. The South was now drafting men between 18 years of age and 45, and none but women, children and old men were left at home to do the work. No cattle could come in from west of the Mississippi, as the railroads were destroyed. Grain could not be sent from Virginia and Tennessee, as now the Union army was strong there. Sugar could not come from Louisiana, nor salt from the coast. No cotton could get out on account of the blockade. Paper money was so plentiful that now it was practically worthless. The soldiers were poorly fed and clothed. It was a hopeless effort, but the Southern army met it all bravely and fought desperately. The war was now one great siege. Grant ordered a concerted move, and Sherman drove Johnston back into Atlanta, where Hood succeeded him and was defeated. From Atlanta Sherman began his famous "March to the Sea," and entered Savannah at the close of the year. Grant began pounding at the Wilderness, and kept it up down through Spottsylvania, Cold Harbor, into Petersburg, where we leave him at the close of the year. Sheridan had destroyed the Shenandoah valley, and Hood was destroyed at Nashville by Thomas. Mobile Bay had surrendered. In spite of treason at home, bad condition of currency, and the lassitude of many leaders, the end was now in sight. Take the map. Sherman was at Savannah ready to march north.

Grant was at Petersburg, the last defense of Richmond, twenty miles south. Lee was in Richmond and Johnston between Sherman and Grant. Petersburg fell early in 1865, and Richmond, the "King" on the chess-board, soon after. Lee sought to escape to the mountains, join Johnston, and prolong the war, for every delay now was dangerous to the Union; *minutes*, even, were precious. Sheridan was sent across the country to head off Lee, and Grant followed closely Lee's army out of Richmond. At Appomatox Sheridan was in front and Grant behind; there was nothing to do. Lee, the magnificent general, surrendered to a man, generous to a fault, the great citizen-soldier, U. S. Grant. A few days after Johnston surrendered to Sherman, and the drama was over, the curtain dropped. May it ever hide strife and disunion; may it always portray patriotism and peace.

The above is the skeleton work for the Civil War. Causes and effects are kept prominently before the class, the teacher should fill in much. It is hoped only to give an idea of the war as a whole in such a manner as the author has found successful before many classes. It is hoped it will prove interesting and instructive. After the war the great question was the coming back into the Union of the seceded states. The class should study this fight carefully, together with the new amendment to the constitution. Give the reconstructive policy careful attention. In the recent administration look to the work of tariff and money legislation.

In these the teacher has an excellent opportunity to bring in current events and make the pupil a student of history as it is made. Bring the work down to the day of recitation and make good use of the newspaper. The author closes as he began —*use* what is said, don't appropriate it blindly or unquestionably. "Learn, then teach." "Independence forever" should blaze from the shield of the teacher. Be yourself.

HISTORY.

In the following outline references to books are made where the information is found best in some book not a regular text-book. If no reference is given, the topic is explained in any ordinary text-book.

1[a] Definition.

2[a] Periods.

1[b] Ancient. See Myers' General History, Ginn & Co., Chicago, $1.50.

1[c] Time—Earliest time to 476 A. D., Fall of Rome.

2[c] Leading countries—Egypt, Babylonia, Persia, Greece and Rome.

2[b] Mediæval. (Myers' General History.)

1[c] Time—476—1492, discovery of America.

2[c] Leading countries—It is a time of constant change. France, Germany and England have their origin in this period, but do not become great as they are to-day. Spain has been held most of the time by the Mohammedans, but by 1500, Ferdinand and Isabella have driven them out, and Spain is the leading nation of Europe. Russia is only a great domain of barbarous tribes with scarcely any government. France stands next to Spain in importance.

3[c] Knowledge.

1[d] Geography.

2[d] General.

3[b] Modern.

1[c] Time—1492 to present.

2[c] New World.

1[d] Discovery. (Fisk's Discovery of America, Houghton & Mifflin, Boston, 2 vols., $4.)

1[e] Obstacles.

1[f] Mental—Belief of shape of the world—superstition, etc.

2[f] Physical—Lack of good equipments and precedent.

2^e Reasons for believing in a new world.

3^e Causes leading to discovery—The dark ages are ending and men were expanding mentally. The crusades had widened men's views. Books had been written. So daring an attempt was only in keeping with the spirit of the times. (Myers' General History.)

4^e Northmen—874, Iceland; 986, Greenland; 1000, Vineland, somewhere on Massachusetts bay. (Fisk's Discovery of America.)

5^e National interest.

1^f Spain.

1^g Standing among nations—Greatest. (Myers' General History.)

2^g Internal affairs—At war with the Moors.

3^g Discoveries and explorers.

1^h Columbus—1492, 1493, 1498, 1502.

(To save time and space it will be understood that under each explorer's name, such and kindred questions shall be asked as come under the topic, Columbus. The teacher may suggest others.)

1^i Nativity and early life.

2^i Voyages.

1^j Object.

2^j Time of each.

3^j Result of each.

3^i Death—1506.

2^h Ponce de Leon—1513, Florida; 1521, Settlement, Fountain of Youth.

3^h Balboa—1513, Pacific ocean.

4^h Cortez—1519-21, Conquest of Mexico. (See Prescott's Conquest of Mexico, Lippincott Co., N. Y., $1.50.)

5^h Narvaeth—1528, conquest, drowned at mouth of Mississippi river.

6^h De Soto—1539-1542, Mississippi river, conquest.

7^h Melendez—1565, St. Augustine.

8^h Magellan—1519-1522, around the globe.

9^h Pizarro—Conquest of Peru, 1531-33. As-

sassinated at Lima, 1541. A cruel, perfidious wretch. History has no sadder story than the destruction of the Incas by Pizarro and his associate cut-throats. See Prescott's Conquest of Peru, Lippincott Co., $2.

10h Espejo—1582, Santa Fe.

11h Vespucius—1497, 1499, 1501, geographer and pilot.

12h Gomez—1525, gold, Labrador to Florida, kidnaping expedition and conquest.

13h De Ayllon—1524, Northwest passage; 1526, San Miguel on the James river; negro slaves.

14h De Vaca—Survivor of Narvaeth's voyage; captured by the Indians; carried to Gulf of California.

15h Coronado—1540, conquest, grand canon of Colorado river.

16h De Gama—1497-1499, around Cape of Good Hope and accomplished Columbus' object. This made Columbus very unpopular, since De Gama had succeeded where he had failed. Columbus made his fourth voyage to redeem himself.

17h Cabrillo—Pacific coast to Oregon, 1542.

4g Claims—South America, Mexico, Florida, and west of Mississippi river.

5g Disputed Claims—France and England in Mississippi valley.

6g Purpose—Conquest. Compare with France and Holland, and especially England. Here lies the key to future history on the American continent.

7g Result—Vast territory, but little gain to the world, if not a positive injury. See Parkman's Montcalm and Wolfe, Little, Brown & Co., Boston,$3.00.

8g Line of Demarkation — A meridian 370 leagues west of Cape Verde islands, adopted 1494 by the Pope as the line between the possessions of Spain and Portugal; all east, now discovered or to be discovered, should belong to Portugal, all west to Spain. This is why Brazil became a Portuguese possession and all the rest of South America Spanish. Cabral discovered Brazil in 1500.

2f France.

1g Standing—Second to Spain. (General History—Myers.)

2g Internal affairs—Huguenot wars. Wars with England and a gradual increase in strength and wealth. War with Spain also.

3g Discoveries and explorers.

1h Verrazani—1524. A Florentine, North Carolina to Maine, capture Spanish ships filled with gold.

2h Cartier—1534, St. Lawrence.

3h Ribaut—1562-65. Settlement for Huguenots, destroyed by Menendez, 1565. (Huguenots' Emigration to America, Baird—Dodd, Meade & Co., Boston, $3.50.)

4h Champlain—1608, Quebec. Governed Canada till 1635. A great and good man.

5h Jesuits—1611-1763. Many of them. A wonderful organization in its sacrifice and zeal. St. Lawrence and Mississippi. (Jesuits in America—Parkman; Little, Brown & Co., Boston, $1.50.)

6h Gourges—1568. Avenged the Huguenot settlement.

7h Demonts—1603. Fur trade in Canada.

8h Potrincourt — 1607. First permanent French settlement, Port Royal.

9h Laudoniere—1564. Settlement on St. John's river.

10h Denys—1506, discovered Gulf of St. Lawrence.

4g Claims—St. Lawrence and Mississippi valleys and all tributaries.

5g Disputed claims—England and Spain in the Mississippi valley.

6g Purpose—Missionary work, largely the work of the Jesuits to convert the Indians. The fisheries and fur trade were incentives.

7g Indian enmity—Made enemies of the Iroquois, which fact finally ruined French plans in the New World.

8g Result—No lasting benefits. The French and Indian war happily ended the Jesuit cause in America. It decided whether America was for homes for millions

of free people or for religious fanaticism and rule, wasting its energies on the Indians. See Montcalm and Wolfe—Parkman.

3f England.

1g Standing—Third rate power, but rapidly moving toward the front. (Myers' General History.)

2g Internal affairs—Wars with France and Spain, and some civil strife.

3g Discoveries and explorers—1497–1607.

1h Cabots—1497–98. North American coast.

2h Frobisher—1576, Northwest passage.

3h Drake—1579, around the globe.

4h Gilbert—1583, settlement.

5h Raleigh—1584–87 settlement.

6h Gosnold—1602. Cape Cod, shortened the route.

7h Hawkins—1560. Slaves to West Indies.

4g Claims—Atlantic coast.

5g Disputed claims—Mississippi valley and Ohio valley.

6g Purpose—Homes.

7g Result—American nation of to-day.

4f Holland. (Myers' General History, and Motley's Rise of Dutch Republic.)

1g Standing—Became independent 1619. Belonged to Spain before for a long time; became a great commercial nation.

2g Internal affairs—Rapid development commercially. A long, hard war for independence.

3g Discoveries and explorers—Hudson—1609. Sent out by East India Company. Holland was then fighting for her independence from Spain. England gave some assistance to her, and Hudson, an English sailor, was sent out to destroy Spanish commerce and sail to Singapore and Malacca. He sailed into the Hudson river, as he named it, thinking he would reach the Pacific, but discovered his mistake. He noticed the great value of the territory for fur trading, and gave up his intended project and began trading. In 1613–14, trading posts were established.

4[g] Claims—Hudson and Delaware valleys.
5[g] Disputed claims—England.
6[g] Purpose—Trading posts.
7[g] Result—Nothing definite or lasting.
2[d] Settlements.
1[e] Colonies.
1[f] Virginia.
1[g] Time—1607.
2[g] Object—Settlement.
3[g] Size of territory—Atlantic coast, Maine to Florida.
4[g] Neutral lands.
5[g] Authority—London Company. (Give full description of company.) See Institutional History of Colonial period, Joseph. Indiana Publishing Co., Danville, Ind.
6[g] Government—Charter to 1624. Royal to 1776, except short period. See Institutional History, Joseph.
1[h] First charter.
1[i] Time—1607.
2[i] Provisions.
1[j] Governing power—King, through superior and inferior council appointed by him.
2[j] Rights.
1[k] King—One-fifth of gold and silver, and one-fifteenth copper.
2[k] Company—No political rights. All produce, except the living of the colonists, one-fifth gold and one-fifteenth copper.
3[k] People—No political right. A living; property in common.
3[j] Religion—Established Church of England till after Revolution. See Institutional History—Joseph.
4[j] Education—Private schools, rich men's sons sent to England for higher education. It was so till after the Revolution. William and Mary's College, 1692, not now in existence. See Institutional History—Joseph.
5[j] Laws—Against non-church going, swearing, gambling, Sabbath-breaking, etc. See Institutional History.

3[i] Effect—Failure. Why?

2[h] Second charter.

1[i] Time—1609.

2[i] Changes—Governor instead of inferior council.

3[i] Starving time.

4[i] Effect—Failure. Why?

3[h] Third charter.

1[i] Time—1612.

2[i] Changes.

1[j] King—Gives up all power to company.

2[j] Company—Have all power. Superior council and governor.

3[j] People—Till 1619 no added power. May own land. Communism ceased. Each man must pay two barrels and one-half of corn to the company annually; all else was his.

4[j] Great charter—1618. Allowing representative rights.

5[j] Assembly.

6[j] Constitution.

3[i] Indian trouble.

4[i] Slavery.

5[i] Effect—Great satisfaction and prosperity.

4[h] Royal.

1[i] Time—1624.

2[i] Cause.

3[i] Change—People, none. Company destroyed. King appointed governor and upper council.

4[i] Effect—Heavy taxes, parties, Bacon's rebellion, dissatisfaction.

7[g] Population—1607, 105 persons; 1619, 4,000 whites; 1775, 560,000.

8[g] Products—Tobacco in chief; by 1670 raised 12,000,000 pounds annually.

9[g] Occupation—Plantation life. See Institutional History—Joseph.

10[g] Citizenship—Property value and church of Englishmen.

2[f] Massachusetts.
1[g] People.
1[h] Pilgrims.
1[i] Colony—Plymouth.
1[j] Object—A place to preserve English customs for their children.
2[j] Time—1620.
3[j] Place.
4[j] Authority—Council of Plymouth. Were to settle farther south. Why?
5[j] Government—Democratic. See Institutional History—Joseph.
6[j] Religion—Congregationalism. See Institutional History.
7[j] Education—Free schools. (Describe.) See Institutional History.
8[j] Citizenship—Church members and also a property qualification.
2[i] Religious doctrine—Separatists. (Describe.)
2[h] Puritans.
1[i] Colony—Massachusetts Bay Colony.
1[j] Object—Greater freedom in religion.
2[j] Time—Territory bought, 1628. Settled, 1629.
3[j] Place.
4[j] Authority—Council of Plymouth. (Explain.)
5[j] Government—Democratic; later, Republican. Both colonies in one. Charter, people elected governor and both houses. Royal, 1684. King appointed governor; remained so till the Revolution. See Institutional History.
6[j] Religion—Very intolerant, only Congregationalists allowed. Under Royal, all except Catholics allowed.
7[j] Education—Free school system. Harvard College, 1636. (Describe.) See Institutional History.
8[j] Citizenship—Church members and property qualifications.

9j Population—1630, 300 persons; 1640, 3,000; 1670, 8,000; 1775, 360,000.

10j Occupation—Fisheries, agriculture and commerce. See Institutional History.

11j Products—Corn, wheat, farm products generally.

2i Effect.

2g Indian troubles.

3g Royal—James II destroyed the charter. In 1691, Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Maine and Nova Scotia united and so remained till Revolution.

1h Cause—Too free.

2h Changes—King appointed governor; all religions except Catholic.

4g First treaty. (Ridpath.)

5g Ballot box. (Ridpath.)

6g Printing press. (Ridpath.)

7g Body of liberties. (Montgomery.)

8g Union.

9g Maine.

1h Settlement—1623.

2h Government—A part of Massachusetts, nearly all the time till 1820. Representative. (Institutional History.)

3h Religion—Same as Massachusetts. (Institutional History.)

4h Education—Same as Massachusetts. (Institutional History.)

5h Citizenship—Same as Massachusetts.

6h Population—1775, 50,000.

7h Occupation—Fisheries, timber. (Institutional History.)

3f New Hampshire.

1g Settlement—1623.

2g Government—Royal; representative. People elected lower house. King appointed others. Connected to Massachusetts much of the time till 1741. (Institutional History.)

3g Education — Free schools. (Institutional History.)

4[g] Religion—Same as Massachusetts. (Institutional History.)

5[g] Royal—1679, 1691, 1741.

6[g] Citizenship—Same as Massachusetts.

7[g] Population—1775, 80,000.

8[g] Occupation—Farming. (Institutional History.)

9[g] Vermont—Claimed by New Hampshire and New York. In everything a typical New England Colony. Made a state 1791.

4[f] New York.

1[g] Settlement—1613, 1614, 1623.

2[g] Claimants.

1[h] Dutch.

1[i] Basis.

2[i] Government—Patroon system, not representative. (Institutional History.)

3[i] Education—Patroon system.

4[i] Religion—Dutch Reform Church. Very tolerant. (Institutional History.)

5[i] Walloons.

6[i] Patroons.

2[h] English—1664–1674.

1[i] Basis.

2[i] Conquest.

3[i] Changes—Not much in local affairs. Representative government. (Institutional History.)

3[g] Population—1775, 180,000.

4[g] Occupation—Farming, commerce, fur trading.

5[g] Products—The cereals, especially wheat.

6[g] Citizenship—Property qualifications.

5[f] Maryland.

1[g] Settlement—1634.

2[g] Government—Proprietary and representative. (Institutional History.)

3[g] Mason and Dixon's line.

4[g] Religion—No persecution under Catholics; was under Protestants, 1690 to revolution. (Institutional History.)

5g Education—Private and parochial school system. (Institutional History.)

6g Civil wars.

7g Citizenship—Property qualifications.

8g Occupation—Farming, commerce, trading with the Indians. (Institutional History.)

9g Population—1634, 200; 1700, 30,000; 1776, 220,000.

6f Connecticut.

1g Settlement—1635.

2g Claimants.

3g Government—By the people wholly; representative. (See Institutional History.)

1h Charter—1662-1818.

2h Constitution—1639.

4g Religion—Same as Massachusetts; very intolerant. (Institutional History.)

5g Education -- Free schools. Yale College, 1700. (Describe.) (Institutional History.)

6g Citizenship--Church members and property qualifications.

7g Attempts on charter.

8g Population --1700, 35,000; 1775, 200,000.

9g Occupation--Commerce, farming. (Institutional History.)

7f Rhode Island--(Institutional History.)

1g Settlement--1636.

2g Government--By the people; representative.

3g Religion--All allowed.

4g Education--Free schools. Brown College, 1764.

5g Charter--1644, 1663.

6g Citizenship—Property qualifications.

7g Population--1775, 50,000.

8g Occupation--Farming, commerce.

8f Delaware—(Institutional History.)

1g A part of Pennsylvania.

1h Settlement—1638. Dutch, 1655; Pennsylvania, 1682.

2h Government -- Representative; separate, 1703. Same governor as Pennsylvania till Revolution.

3h Religion—Quaker, Dutch Reform Church, English Church.

4h Education — Free schools to those who could not afford to pay; also patroon system.

2g Independent. No material change.

3g Citizenship—Property qualifications.

4g Population—1775, 40,000.

5g Occupation—Commerce, farming, trading.

9f North Carolina—(Institutional History.)

1g Settlement—1663.

2g Government—Grand model, Royal and Representative.

3g Religion—Church of England; all tolerated.

4g Education—Private school system.

5g Citizenship—Property qualifications.

6g Population—1700, 10,000; 1750, 90,000; 1775, 260,000.

7 Occupation—Plantation life. Tar, turpentine.

10f New Jersey. (Institutional History.)

1g Dutch.

2g English.

1h Proprietary—1664, 1702.

1i Government—Representative.

2i Division—1676.

2h Royal—1702.

3h Settlement—1664.

4h Education—Free and private schools. College, Princeton, 1746.

5h Religion—Many different sects.

6h Citizenship—Property qualification.

7h Population—1700, 20,000; 1775, 130,000.

8h Occupation—Farming.

11f South Carolina, (Institutional History.)

1g Settlement—1670.

2g Government—Royal and representative.

3g Religion—Church of England.

4g Education—Private school system.

5g Citizenship—Property qualification.

6g Money—Rice.

7g Population—1700, 15,000; 1775, 180,000.

8g Occupation--Plantation life.

12f Pennsylvania. (See Institutional History.)

1g Settlement--1681.

2g Government—Proprietary. Representative, only one house.

3g Education—All given free schooling who could not pay. College, 1749. Public High School, 1689.

4g Citizenship—Tax-payers and Christians. Others allowed who believed in a God.

5g Occupation—Farming.

6g Population—1700, 40,000; 1775, 300,000.

13f Georgia. (See Institutional History.)

1g Settlement--1733, 114 persons.

2g Government—By trustees till 1752. Royal and representative.

3g Religion—All except Catholics. Toleration under Royal.

4g Education—Private school system.

5g Citizenship—Property qualification.

6g Landholding—Descend to eldest son. Women not allowed to own land.

7g Slavery and rum prohibited at first.

8g Occupation—Plantation life.

9g Population--1750, 5,000; 1775, 30,000.

2e Generalizing.

1f Government. (Institutional History.)

1g Form. Representative in all.

2g Class.

1h Proprietary.

1i Colonies.

1j Maryland.

2j Pennsylvania.

3j Delaware.

2i Government.

1j Governor.

1k Election.

2k Power.

2j Legislative branch.

1k Upper house (except in Penn.).

1l Election.

2l Power.

2^k Lower house.
1^l Election.
2^l Power.
3^j Judicial branch. Superior judge, circuit judges. Appeal to council and king. (See Institutional History.
4^j Local government. Municipal and township. (See Institutional History.)
5^j Power of the people. (See Institutional History.)
2^h Charter.
1^i Colonies.
1^j Connecticut.
2^j Rhode Island.
3^j Massachusetts.
2^i Government.
1^j Governor.
1^k Election.
2^k Power.
2^j Legislative branch.
1^k Upper house.
1^l Election.
2^l Power.
2^k Lower house.
1^l Election.
2^l Power.
3^j Judicial branch. Superior judge, circuit judges. Squires. Appeal to assembly and king. (See Institutional History.)
4^i Local Government. Township and Municipal. (See Institutional History.)
5^j Power of people.
3^h Royal. (See Institutional History.)
1^i Colonies.
1^j Virginia.
2^j North Carolina.
3^j South Carolina.
4^j Georgia.
5^j New Jersey.
6^j New York.

7[j] New Hampshire.
2[i] Government.
1[j] Governor.
1[k] Election.
2[k] Power.
2[j] Legislative branch.
1[k] Upper house.
1[l] Election.
2[l] Power.
2[k] Lower house.
1[l] Election.
2[l] Power.
3[j] Judicial branch. Superior judges, circuit judges. Appeal to council and king.
4[j] Local government. Counties in south. Township and municipal in others.
5[j] Power of people.
2[f] Treatment by king.
3[f] Liberty in New World and England.
4[f] Difficulties of government.
5[f] Slavery 1775—50,000 North and 450,000 South. (See Institutional History.)
6[f] Religious persecution.
7[f] New England Union.
8[f] Wars.
1[g] King William's war.
1[h] Time—1789–97.
2[h] Cause.
3[h] Treaty.
2[g] Queen Anne's war.
1[h] Time—1702–13.
2[h] Cause.
3[h] Treaty.
3[g] King George's war.
1[h] Time—1744–48.
2[h] Cause.
3[h] Treaty.
4[g] French and Indian war.
1[h] Time—1754—1763.
2[h] Cause.

3h Spain.
4h Objective points.
1i Importance of each.
2i Capture.
5h Indian alliance.
6h United action.
7h Albany congress.
8h Treaty.

9f Population, 1776, 2,600,000. English, French, German, Dutch, Scotch, Swedes, Irish, etc.

10f Industries.
11f Board of Trade and plantations.
12f Navigation act.
13f French forts.
14f Ohio company.
15f The west.
16f Wealth.
17f Learning.
18f Colonial life. (See Institutional History.)

1g Houses.
1h Windows.
2h Furniture.
3h Plates and forks.
4h Chimneys.
5h Floors.
6h Cooking.
2g Drinking.
3g Dress.
4g Travel.
5g Amusements.
6g Funerals.
7g Tenants.
8g Indentured servants.
9g Crimps, trepanning, soul drivers, convicts, bond servants.
10g Laws and customs.

1h Lying, profanity, Sabbath-breaking, stocks, church-going, gossip, ducking-stool, whipping-post, burning, pillory.

2h Effect.
11g Food.

3d Revolution and Construction. (See Frothingham's Rise of the Republic, Fiske's American Revolution, Fiske's Critical Period.)

1e Time—1776, 1783.
2e Causes.
1f Stamp act.
1g Time—1765.
2g Congress—1765.
3g Sons of Liberty.
4g Assemblies.
5g Repeal.
2f Commercial taxation.
1g Parties.
1h Whigs.
2h Tories.
2g Articles—Paint, sugar, iron, tea, etc.
3g Repeal—All except tea.
1h English deception.
2h Committee of correspondence.
3h American resistance.
1i Charleston.
2i New York.
3i Philadelphia.
4i Annapolis.
5i Boston—Result—Five Intolerable Acts.
1j Name.
1k Boston Port Bill.
2k Transportation Act.
3k Massachusetts Bill.
4k Legalizing Quartering Act.
5k Quebec Act.
2j Result—First Continental Congress.
1k Time—1774, September 5.
2k Place—Philadelphia.
3k Purpose.
4k Delegates.
1l Number, 55.

2[l] Election—Conventions and legislatures.

5[k] Action.

1[l] Declaration of Rights.

2[l] Addresses.

3[l] Articles of Association.

4[l] Slavery.

5[l] Adjournment.

3[f] Lexington and Concord.

1[g] Time—1775, April 19.

2[g] Cause.

3[g] Result.

4[f] Ticonderoga.

1[g] Time—1775, May 10.

2[g] Cause.

3[g] Result.

5[f] Second Continental Congress.

1[g] Time—1775, May 10.

2[g] Place—Philadelphia.

3[g] Actions.

1[h] Quarrel of Massachusetts.

2[h] Army.

3[h] Navy.

4[h] Commander-in-chief.

5[h] Expenses.

6[h] Declaration of Independence.

1[i] Time—1776, July 4.

2[i] Purpose.

7[h] Articles of Confederation.

1[i] Time—1777.

2[i] Purpose.

3[i] Ratification—1781.

4[i] Power.

5[i] Weakness.

6[i] Change.

4[g] Power.

5[g] Delegates—Elected by state legislatures.

6[g] Adjournment.

3[e] War.

1[f] Government.

1g National—Second Continental Congress. Articles of Confederation.

2g Colonial—Same as before except the people have full power.

2f Battles and movements—(See Coffin's boys of '76.)

1g Bunker Hill—Time, cause and result.

2g Boston—Time, cause and result.

3g Plan of war.

1h English—General Howe.

2h American—General Washington.

4g Central States.

1h New York—Time, cause.

2h Retreat—Time, purpose.

3h Trenton—Time, purpose.

4h Princeton—Time, purpose.

5h Morristown—Time, purpose.

6h Brandywine—Time, purpose.

7h Germantown—Time, purpose.

8h Valley Forge—Time, purpose.

9h Monmouth—Time, purpose.

5g Northern States—Burgoyne's surrender.

1h Time.

2h Effect. France Acknowledged Independence.

1i War between England and France.

2i Spain and Holland join France.

3i Accessions of England.

6g Southern States.

1h Savannah—Time, cause.

2h Camden—Time, cause.

3h Cowpens—Time, cause.

4h Guilford Court House—Time, cause.

5h Eutaw Springs—Time, cause.

6h Yorktown—Time, cause.

7h Partison Corps.

8h Ragged Regiment.

7g Naval Battles.

8g Conway Cabal.

9g Arnold's Treason.

10g Financial Conditions.

11[g] Treaty.
4[e] Affairs from 1783–1789.—Fiske's Critical Period.
1[f] Government—National House, states as before.
2[f] Shay's Rebellion.
3[f] Annapolis Convention—1786.
4[f] Federal Convention.
1[g] Time—1787.
2[g] Place—Philadelphia.
3[g] Purpose.
4[g] Work—Constitution.
1[h] Ratification.
2[h] Parties.
1[i] Federal.
2[i] Anti-Federal.
3[h] Opposition.
4[h] Government—Branches.
1[i] Legislative.
1[j] Election.
2[j] Power.
3[j] Qualification.
2[i] Judicial—Supreme judge, 8 associate.
1[j] Election—By President.
2[j] Power—Constitutionality of laws.
3[j] Qualification.
3[i] Executive.
1[j] Election.
2[j] Power.
3[j] Qualification.
5[f] Ordinance of 1787.
6[f] First President.
4[d] National period—1789–1892, Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston, $1.50.
1[e] Time—1789.
2[e] Administrations.
1[f] Washington—(Learn Presidents in their order) 1789–1797.
1[g] Amendments to constitution.
2[g] Ratifying constitution.
3[g] Act of Congress.

1h Cabinet offices.
1i State.
1j Duties.
2j Salary.
2i Treasury.
1j Duties.
2j Salary.
3i War.
1j Duties.
2j Salary.
4i Justice.
1j Duties.
2j Salary.
2h Hamilton's Financial Scheme.
1i State and National debt.
2i Tariff (Student should study tariff in its continuity down to the present)—(See Institutional History).
3i Banks (Should study same as tariff—See Institutional History.
4i Mint.
5i Capital city.
3h States admitted—(Should learn in their order).
4g Associated youths—Organization of young men in the Federal party.
5g French trouble.
6g Whisky rebellion.
7g Indian trouble.
8g Jay's treaty.
9g Mississippi treaty.
10g Inventions—(Influence).
11g Algiers.
12g Copper cent.
13g Naturalization—Two years changed to five.
14g Bonds—To full debt.
15g Continental currency—Refunded at one cent on the dollar.
16g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles—(Carefully seek principles).

3h Candidates.
2f John Adams—1797-1801.
1g French trouble.
1h Hail Columbia.
2h X Y Z papers.
2g Alien law.
3g Sedition law.
4g Navy department.
5g Virginia resolutions—Voice of the People, J. E. Sherrill, Danville, Ind.
6g Kentucky resolutions—Voice of the People.
7g Holland purchase—Dictionary of American Politics, C. A. Hargrave, Danville, Ind.
8g Hot Water Rebellion—Dictionary of American Politics.
9g Naturalization, 14 years.
10g XI Amendment.
11g Presidential Election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
12g Midnight judges. Dictionary of American Politics.
3f Thomas Jefferson—1801-1809.
1g Military Academy. Dictionary of American Politics.
1h Purpose.
2h Place.
3h Time.
4h Course of study.
5h Admission.
6h Graduation.
2g Louisiana purchase. (Carefully fix all changes in the boundary lines of U. S.) (See Institutional History.)
3g Lewis and Clark's expedition.
4g States admitted.
5g Inventions.
6g Tripoli.
7g Foreign affairs.

1h Orders in council—No. 1. 900 ships confiscated; 6,000 men impressed.
2h Berlin decree.
3h Orders in council—No. 2.
4h Milan decree.
8g Embargo act.
9g Dictionary.
10g Sinking fund.
11g Written message.
12g Naturalization—5 years.
13g Judiciary law repealed.
14g Duel.
15g XII Amendment.
16g National road.
17g Presidental election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
4f James Madison—1809-1817.
1g Non-intercourse act.
2g States admitted.
3g Funding bill.
4g The "Federalists."—Dictionary of American Politics.
5g Hartford convention.
6g American system. (See Institutional History.)
7g Blue Lights and Coodies.—Dictionary of American Politics.
8g War.—See Johnson's War of 1812.
1h Cause.
2h Beginning.
1i 1812.
1j Detroit (cause and effect should play most prominent part in all battles).
2j Queentown Heights.
3j Naval battles.
2i 1813.
1j Plan.
2j Armies.

1[k] Center.
2[k] North.
3[k] West.
3[j] Naval battles.
3[i] 1814.
1[j] Lundy's Lane.
2[j] Lake Champlain.
3[j] Washington.
4[j] Peace.
5[j] New Orleans.

9[g] Bank—Trace the banking system from 1791 to 1816. Especially from 1811 to 1816. (See Institutional History.)

10[g] Creek War.

11[g] Presidential Election.

1[h] Parties.
2[h] Principles.
3[h] Candidates.

5[f] James Monroe—1817–1825.

1[g] States admitted.

2[g] Missouri Compromise. (Institution of slavery should be studied, and its influence noted till 1821.) See Institutional History.

3[g] The Savannah. (Industrial progress should be noted about every twenty-five years.)

4[g] Lafayette. (Compare our condition now with our condition when he was with us before.)

5[g] Treaties.

1[h] Spain.
2[h] England.

6[g] Monroe doctrine.

7[g] Colonization Act. (Go into details carefully.) (See Institutional History.)

8[g] Tariff—Its history since 1789.

9[g] Election.

1[h] Parties.
2[h] Principles.
3[h] Candidates.

6[f] J. Q. Adams—1825–1829.

1[g] Tariff.

2^g Railroad. (Make a summary of our Industrial condition and compare it with one made for 1800.)

3^g Congress of American States.

4^g Pewter Muggers—Dictionary of American Politics.

5^g Anti-Masons—1827.

6^g Erie canal—1825.

7^g Election.

1^h Parties.

2^h Principles.

3^h Candidates.

7^f Andrew Jackson—1829-1837.

1^g Postmaster-General.

2^g Tariff. Tariff here falls back to a second place, and slavery takes first place. The student should understand both well to this point. Study them in their development, their influence from 1789 to 1861. They are the two threads to follow through our history, always keep them in mind. (See Institutional History.)

3^g Pocket veto.

4^g Bank—Trace the history from 1816, and from this on till 1863. Make yourself well acquainted with our banking and money system. (See Institutional Histroy.)

5^g Black Hawk war.

6^g Specie payment.

7^g Texan war.

8^g French indemnity.

9^g Blind Asylum—Study our development in charitable institutions.

10^g Expunging resolutions — Dictionary of American Politics.

11^g Hickory pole and broom — Dictionary of American Politics.

12^g Loco-focos.

13^g Toasts.

14^g State banks. (Very important to understand.)

15^g Imprisonment for debt.

16^g Turner's rebellion.

17^g Kitchen cabinet.

18g States admitted.
19g Inventions—Reaper.
20g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.

8f Van Buren—1837, 1841.

1g Crises. Notice the regular intervals of financial crises and cause of each. It is remarkable that one occurs about every twenty years.

2g Sub-treasury bill.

3g Smithsonian Institute. (Describe carefully.) (Dictionary of American Politics.)

4g Ashburton treaty

5g Wild-cat banks. (Should carefully study their nature.) (Institutional History.)

6g Repudiation.

7g Lovejoy.

8g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.

9f Harrison—1841.

1g Albany regency—Dictionary of American Politics.

2g Armistead case—Dictionary of American Politics.

3g Death.

10f Tyler—1845.

1g Right of petition. (Very important.)
2g Tariff. (Institutional History.)
3g Dorr's rebellion.
4g Extradition of criminals.
5g States admitted.
6g Hunkers and barn-burners. Dictionary of American Politics.
7g Liberty League.
8g Telegraph.
9g National bank.
10g Texas scheme.

11g Bankrupt law.
12g Northwest boundary.
13g Anti-rent war.
14g Hard skulls and soft shells. (Dictionary of American Politics.)
15g Democratic rooster. (Dictionary of American Politics.)
16g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
11f Polk—1845–49.
1g Wilmot proviso.
2g Oregon.
3g Naval academy. (Very important.) (Dictionary of American Politics.)
4g New department.
5g War. See Ripley's War with Mexico.
1h Causes.
2h Plan.
3h Battles.
4h Treaty.
6g Free-soilers.
7g Worcester's Dictionary—1846.
8g Cylinder printing press—1847.
9g Oneida Community.
10g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
12f Taylor—1849.
1g Death.
13f Fillmore—1853.
1g Silver Grays. (Dictionary of American Politics.)
2g Omnibus bill. Notice growth of slavery since 1821. (Institutional History.)
3g Cuban filibusters.
4g Tripartite treaty.
5g Clayton-Bulwer treaty.

6[g] Nashville convention.
7[g] Maine law.
8[g] Louis Kossuth.
9[g] Uncle Tom's Cabin—1850.
10[g] Postage—To 3c., 1851.
11[g] Presidential election.
1[h] Parties.
2[h] Principles.
3[h] Candidates.
14[f] Pierce—1853—1857.
1[g] Gadsden Purchase.
2[g] Kansas-Nebraska Bill.
3[g] Know Nothing party.
4[g] Walker filibustering expedition.
5[g] Tariff.
6[g] Martin Koszta.
7[g] Japan treaty.
8[g] Ostend manifesto.
9[g] Sumner-Brooks affair.
10[g] Clearing House. (Institutional History.)
11[g] Presidential Election.
1[h] Parties.
2[h] Principles.
3[h] Candidates.
15[f] Buchanan—1857—1861.
1[g] States admitted.
2[g] Japan embassy.
3[g] Dred-Scott decision.
4[g] Personal Liberty bills.
5[g] John Brown's raid.
6[g] Lecompton convention.
7[g] Wyandot constitution.
8[g] Presidential election.
1[h] Parties.
1[i] Southern Democrat.
2[i] Northern Democrat.
3[i] Republican.
4[i] American.
2[h] Principles.
3[h] Candidates.

4h Result.
1i Secession of.
1j South Carolina.
2j Mississippi.
3j Alabama.
4j Florida.
5j Georgia.
6j Louisiana.
7j Texas.
2i Montgomery convention. See Stephens's War between the States, 2 vols., and Greeley's American Conflict. 2 vols.
1j Purpose.
2j Composed of whom?
3j Election.
4j Result.—(Confederate States of America.)
1k President and Vice-President.
1l Election.
2l Duties.
2k Constitution.
1l Departments.
2l Character.
3k Flag.
9g Peace congress.
10g Crittenden compromise.
16f Lincoln 1861-65. The student should here again make himself acquainted with the condition of the United States as to improvements, wealth, etc.
1g Cabinet.
2g Ft. Sumter—April 13, 1861.
1h Time.
2h Purpose.
3h Location.
4h Result—Call of troops.
1i Purpose.
2i Effect.
1j Secession.
1k North Carolina.
2k Tennessee.

3[k] Arkansas.
4[k] Virginia.
2[j] Action of.
1[k] Kentucky.
2[k] Maryland.
3[k] Missouri.
4[k] Foreign powers.
3[j] Blockade.
4[i] Letters of marque and reprisal.
5[j] Declaration of war. The student should study the "article" on the Civil War in this volume, and always use the map.

3[g] Civil War. (Boys of '61, Coffin; Draper's Civil War, 3 vols.; Grant's Memoirs, 2 vols., Charles L. Webster, N. Y., $7.00.)
1[h] Generals-in-chief.
1[i] North — Scott, McClelland, Halleck, Grant.
2[i] South — Beauregard, Johnston, J. E., Lee.
2[h] Departments.
1[i] East.
1[j] Commanders—MacDowell, McClellan, Pope (three corps), Burnside, Hooker, Meade and Grant.
2[j] Army.
1[k] Size.
2[k] Purpose.
3[j] Battles.
1[k] Bull Run. (The questions asked under this battle are understood to belong to every battle.)
1[l] Purpose.
2[l] Time.
3[l] Commander.
1[m] North.
2[m] South.
4[l] Number of opposing forces.
5[l] Next move of both armies.
6[l] Effect.
2[k] Yorktown.
3[k] Williamsburg.

4[k] Seven Pines.
5[k] Fair Oaks.
6[k] Jackson's raid.
7[k] Stuart's raid.
8[k] Seven Days' battle.
9[k] Bull Run (2).
10[k] Antietam.
11[k] Fredericksburg.
12[k] Chancellorsville.
13[k] Gettysburg.
14[k] Wilderness.
15[k] Spottsylvania.
16[k] Cold Harbor.
17[k] Early's raid.
18[k] Petersburg.
19[k] Sheridan's campaign.
20[k] Five Forks.
21[k] Petersburg.
22[k] Richmond.
23[k] Appomatox.

2[i] Center.

1[j] Commanders—Buell, Rosecrans, Grant at Chattanooga, Sherman.
2[j] Size.
3[j] Purpose.
4[j] Battles.
1[k] Perryville.
2[k] Murfreesboro.
3[k] Chickamauga.
4[k] Chattanooga.
5[k] South to Atlanta.
6[k] Atlanta.
7[k] Nashville.
8[k] March to sea.
9[k] March north.
10[k] Johnston's surrender.

3[i] West.

1[j] Commanders—Halleck, Grant.
2[j] Size.
3[j] Purpose.

4[j] Battles.
1[k] Ft. Henry.
2[k] Ft. Donelson.
3[k] Shiloh.
4[k] Corinth.
5[k] Vicksburg.
3[h] Naval battles.
1[i] Monitor and Merrimac.
2[i] New Orleans.
3[i] Mobile Bay.
4[i] Island No. 10.
5[i] Privateers.
4[h] Civil topics.
1[i] Emancipation proclamation.
2[i] Drafts.
3[i] Greenbacks. (Study our different kinds of money.)
4[i] National banks. (Very important to understand.)
5[i] Alabama—("2-90").
6[i] Foreign affairs.
7[i] Presidential election.
1[j] Parties.
2[j] Principles.
3[j] Candidates.
8[i] Bounty.
9[i] Postal orders.
10[i] Gilmore peace negotiations.
11[i] Northwest conspiracy.
12[i] American knights.
13[i] XIII Amendment.
14[i] States admitted.
4[g] Assassination.
17[f] Johnson—1865-69. (The student should again take an inventory of the condition of the United States.)
1[g] Disbanding army.
2[g] Fenians.
3[g] Mexico.
4[g] Telegraph.
5[g] Alaska.

6g States admitted.
7g Reconstruction.
1h President's plan.
2h Congress' plan.
8g XIV Amendment.
9g Tenure-of-office bill--Impeachment.
10g Monetary conference.
11g Treaty with Germany.
12g Bureau of Education.
13g Burlingame treaty.
14g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
18f Grant—1869-1877.
1g Treaty of Washington.
1h Provisions.
2h Effect.
2g Geneva award.
3g Northwest boundary.
4g Fishery treaty.
5g San Domingo.
6g The Virginius.
7g Pacific railroad.
8g Centennial.
9g XV Amendment.
10g Whisky ring.
11g Signal service bureau.
12g Demonetizing silver.
13g Salary grab.
14g States admitted.
15g Carpet-bag rule.
16g Presidential election--Joint Electoral Commission.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
19f Hayes—1877-1881.
1g Civil service reform.

2g Bland silver bill.
3g Chinese immigration.
4g Monetary conference.
5g Fishery award.
6g Chinese treaty.
7g Bankrupt law.
8g Refunding U. S. bonds.
9g Specie payment.
10g Mississippi scheme.
11g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
20f Garfield—1881.
1g Obelisk.
2g Star route scandal.
3g Confederation of American nations.
4g Assassination.
21f Arthur—1885.
1g Anti-Chinese bill.
2g River and harbor bill.
3g Fitz-John Porter bill.
4g Postal bill.
5g Blair educational bill.
6g Edmunds bill.
7g Morrison's tariff bill.
8g Yorktown centennial.
9g Lasker resolutions.
10g Government of Alaska.
11g Mugwump.
12g Anti-monopoly party.
13g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
22f Cleveland—1885–89.
1g Presidential succession bill.
2g Interstate commerce act.
3g Bartholdi statue.
4g Oleomargarine act.

5g Chinese immigration.
6g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
23f Harrison—1889–1893.
1g Oklahoma.
2g States admitted.
3g Reciprocity.
4g McKinley bill.
5g Dependent pension bill.
6g Anti-trust act.
7g Meat inspection act.
8g Original package act.
9g Restricting immigration.
10g Direct tax refund.
11g Silver bill.
12g Copyright bill.
13g Anti-lottery bill.
14g Postal subsidy act.
15g Maritime congress.
16g Extradition treaty.
17g Pan-American congress.
18g Electrocution.
19g Monetary conference.
20g Presidential election.
1h Parties.
2h Principles.
3h Candidates.
24f Cleveland—1893.
1g Cherokee Strip.
2g Extra session of congress.
3g Silver bill.
4g Panic.
5g Whisky tax.
6g Wilson bill.
7g Income tax.
8g Hawaiian trouble.
9g Extradition treaty.
10g Anti-lottery bill.
11g Sound money agitation.
1h Monometalism.
2h Bimetalism.
3h Free coinage of silver.
12g Bond issues.
13g International affairs.
14g United States history text-book agitation.

BOOKS OF REFERENCE

FOR THE STUDENTS' HISTORICAL LIBRARY.

GENERAL HISTORIES.

Winsor's Narrative and Critical History. 8 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., N. Y. $40.00 (to 1887).

Bancroft's United States History. 6 vols. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. $15.00 (to 1789).

Hildreth's United States History. 6 vols. Harper Bros., N. Y. $12.00 (to 1821).

Bryant & Gay's Popular History. 4 vols. Scribner's Sons, N. Y. $24.00 (to 1865).

Lossing's Encyclopedia of United States History. Harper Bros., N. Y. $14.00.

Bryce's American Commonwealth. 2 vols. McMillan, N. Y. $4.00.

Spark's American Biography. 10 vols. Harper Bros., N. Y. $1.25 per vol.

Appleton's Cyclopedia of American Biography. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. $30.00.

Gilman's Historical Reader. 3 vols. Interstate Publishing Co., Boston. $1.44.

Pratt's American History Stories. 4 vols. Educational Publishing Co. 36c. per vol.

Naval History of United States. Cooper. Armstrong & Son, N. Y. $3.75.

MacCoun's Historical Geography of United States. Silver, Burdette & Co., Boston. $1.12.

Scudder's American Commonwealth. (History of States.) Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 per vol.

ORIGINAL DOCUMENTS.

Old South Leaflets. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston. 5c. and 10c. each. About 50 already issued. Very valuable.

American History Leaflets. A. Lovell & Co., N. Y. 5c. and 10c. each. Very valuable.

Library of American Literature. 10 vols. Charles L. Webster & Co., N. Y. $3.00 per vol.

Representative American Orations. Johnston. 3 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y. $3.75 (Period 1775–1881).

DISCOVERY AND SETTLEMENT.

Higginson's American Explorers. Lee & Shepherd, Boston. $1.50.

Parkman's Pioneers of France in the New World. 2 vols. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.00.

Parkman's Jesuits in N. A. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $1.50.

Lodge's English Colonies. Harpers, N. Y. $3.00.

Doyle's The English in America. 3 vols. Henry Holt & Co., N. Y. $10.50.

Coffin's Old Times in the Colonies. Harper Bros., N. Y. $3.00.

Conquest of Mexico. Prescott. 3 vols. Lippincott & Co., N. Y. $1.50.

Conquest of Peru. Prescott. 2 vols. Lippincott & Co., N. Y. $2.00.

Puritians and Pilgrims. Moore. Ginn & Co., Chicago. 60c.

Red Man and White Man. Ellis. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.50.

Parkman's Conspiracy of Pontiac. 2 vols. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.00.

Parkman's Montcalm and Wolfe. 2 vols. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.00.

Eggleston's Montezuma. Dodd, Mead & Co., N. Y. $1.00.

Abbott's Cortez. Dodd, Mead & Co., N. Y. $1.00.

Towle's Heroes of History. Lee & Shepherd, Boston. $1.25.

Monroe's Stories of Our Own Country. Lee & Shepherd, Boston. 66c.

Fisk's Discovery of America. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $2.00 per vol.

Fisk's Beginning of New England. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $2.00.

Schoolcraft's Thirty Years With Indian Tribes. Lippincott, Philadelphia. $1.50.

REVOLUTION, CONSTITUTION AND POLITICAL.

Fisk's American Revolution. 2 vols. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $2.00 per vol.

Fisk's Critical Period. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $2.00.

Frothingham's Rise of the Republic. Little, Brown & Co., Boston. $3.50.

History of American Politics, Johnston. H. Holt & Co., N. Y. $1.00.

Voice of the People. J. E. Sherrill, Danville, Ind. $2.00.

Dictionary of American Politics. C. A. Hargrave, Danville, Ind. 75c.

Fisk's Civil Government of United States. Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. $1.00.

Coffin's Boys of '76. Estes, Lauriat & Co., Boston. $3.00.

Von Holst's Constitutional History. 7 vols. Callaghan & Co., Chicago. $23.50.

NATIONAL PERIOD.

McMaster's People of the United States. 6 vols. D. Appleton & Co., N. Y. $2.50 per vol.

Schouler's United States History. 5 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co., N. Y. $11.25.

Henry Adams' History of United States. 9 vols. Scribner's Sons, N. Y. $18.00.

Johnson's War of 1812. Dodd, Mead & Co., N. Y. $1.00.

Minor Wars of United States. Dodd, Mead & Co., N. Y. $1.00 per vol.

Thompson's Recollections of Sixteen Presidents. 2 vols. Bowen-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, Ind. $6.00.

Blaine's Twenty Years in Congress. C. A. Hargrave, Danville, Ind. $7.00.

CIVIL WAR.

Draper's Civil War. 3 vols. Harpers. $10.50.

Greeley's American Conflict. 2 vols. O. D. Case & Co., Hartford, Conn. $9.00.

Coffin's Boys of '61. Estes & Lauriat, Boston. $2.50.

Pollard's Lost Cause. C. A. Hargrave, Danville, Ind. $5.00.

Stephens' War Between the States. 2 vols. C. A. Hargrave, Danville, Ind. $6.00.

Davis' Rise and Fall of the Confederate States. 2 vols. C. A. Hargrave, Danville, Ind. $10.00.

Blaisdill's Stories of Civil War. Lee & Shepherd, Boston. 35c.

Grant's Memoirs. 2 vols. Charles L. Webster, N. Y. $7.00.

Story of the Civil War, Rope's. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50 per vol.

INSTITUTIONAL HISTORIES.

Bishop's History of American Manufactures. 2 vols.

Richardson's American Literature. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y. $4.00.

History of Negro Race in America, Williams. Putnam's Sons, N. Y. $4.00.

Taussig's History of Tariff in United States. Putnams, N. Y. $1.25.

Dunbar's Chapters in Theory and History of Banking. G. P. Putnam's Sons, N. Y. $1.25.

COLONIAL COLLEGES.

1. Harvard, Cambridge, Mass., 1636.
2. William & Mary, Williamsburg, Va., 1692.
3. Yale, New Haven, Conn., 1700.
4. College of New Jersey, Princeton, N. J., 1746.
5. University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa., 1749.
6. Kings or Columbia, New York City, 1754.
7. Brown University, Providence, R. I., 1764.
8. Dartsmouth, Hanover, N. H., 1769.
9. Queens or Rutgers, Brunswick, 1776.

PRESIDENTS.

1. George Washington, Virginia, 1789–1797, parties did not divide.
2. John Adams, Massachusetts, 1797–1801, Federal.
3. Thomas Jefferson, Virginia, 1801–1809, Democrat.
4. James Madison, Virginia, 1809–1817, Democrat.
5. James Monroe, Virginia, 1817–1825, Democrat.
6. J. Q. Adams, Massachusetts, 1825–1829, Whig.
7. Andrew Jackson, Tennessee, 1829–1837, Democrat.
8. Martin VanBuren, New York, 1837–1841, Democrat.
9. William Henry Harrison, Ohio, 1841–, Whig.
10. John Tyler, Virginia, 1841–1845, Whig.
11. James K. Polk, Tennessee, 1845–1849, Democrat.
12. Zachary Taylor, Louisiana, 1849–1850, Whig.
13. Millard Fillmore, New York, 1850–1853, Whig.
14. Franklin Pierce, New Hampshire, 1853–1857, Democrat
15. James Buchanan, Pennsylvania, 1857–1861, Democrat.
16. Abraham Lincoln, Illinois, 1861–1865, Republican.
17. Andrew Johnson, Tennessee, 1865–1869, Republican.
18. U. S. Grant, Illinois, 1869–1877, Republican.
19. R. B. Hayes, Ohio, 1877–1881, Republican.
20. James A. Garfield, Ohio, 1881–, Republican.
21. C. A. Arthur, New York, 1881–1885, Republican.
22. Grover Cleveland, New York, 1885–1889, Democrat.
23. Benjamin Harrison, Indiana, 1889–1893, Republican.
24. Grover Cleveland, New York, 1893——, Democrat.

OFFICERS

IN THEIR ORDER.

Commissioned Officers:

1. General—Command of whole army. Grant, Sherman and Sheridan, our only generals.
2. Lieutenant-General—Command of whole army. Washington, Scott (Breveted) Grant, Sherman and Sheridan.
3. Major-General—Command of division or corps.
4. Brigadier-General—Command of brigade.
5. Colonel—Command of regiment.
6. Lieutenant-Colonel—Assists the colonel.
7. Major—Lowest field officer.
8. Captain—Command of company.
9. Lieutenant—Aids other officers.
10. Adjutant—Aids in garrison duty.
11. Adjutant-General—Takes and receives orders for Commissary-General.
12. Commissary General—Charge of special department.
13. Quartermaster-General—Charge of supplies in chief.
14. Quartermaster—Charge of supplies.

Non-Commissioned Officers:

1. Sergeant-Major—Aids the Adjutant.
2. Sergeant—Instructs in discipline and forms ranks.
3. Corporal—Charge of sentinels.

ARMY DIVISIONS.

1. Company—100 men—Captain.
2. Regiment—10 companies—Colonel.
3. Brigade—2 or more regiments—Brigadier-General.
4. Division—2 or more brigades—Major-General.
5. Corps—2 or more divisions—General or Major-General.
6. Army—General or Lieutenant-General.

CHIEF JUSTICES.

1. John Jay, New York, Sept. 26, 1789.
2. John Rutledge, South Carolina, July 1, 1795.
3. William Cushing, Massachusetts, Jan. 27, 1796.
4. Oliver Ellsworth, Connecticut, Mar. 4, 1796.
5. John Jay, New York, Dec. 19, 1800.
6. John Marshall, Virginia, Jan. 27, 1801.
7. Roger B. Taney, Maryland, Dec. 28, 1835.
8. Salmon P. Chase, Ohio, Dec. 28, 1864.
9. Morrison R. Waite, Ohio, Jan. 21, 1874.
10. Melville U. Fuller, Illinois, Oct. 8, 1888.

STATES.

RATIFIED CONSTITUTION.

1.	Delaware	Dec. 7, 1787
2.	Pennsylvania	Dec. 12, 1787
3.	New Jersey	Dec. 18, 1787
4.	Georgia	Jan. 2, 1788
5.	Connecticut	Jan. 9, 1788
6.	Massachusetts	Feb. 6, 1788
7.	Maryland	April 28, 1788
8.	South Carolina	May 23, 1788
9.	New Hampshire	June 21, 1788
10.	Virginia	June 25, 1788
11.	New York	July 26, 1788
12.	North Carolina	Nov. 21, 1789
13.	Rhode Island	May 29, 1790

ADMITTED.

14.	Vermont	March 4, 1791
15.	Kentucky	June 1, 1792
16.	Tennessee	June 1, 1796
17.	Ohio	Nov. 29, 1802
18.	Louisiana	April 30, 1812
19.	Indiana	Dec. 11, 1816
20.	Mississippi	Dec. 10, 1817

21.	Illinois	Dec. 3, 1818
22.	Alabama	Dec. 14, 1819
23.	Maine	March 15, 1820
24.	Missouri	Aug. 10, 1821
25.	Arkansas	June 15, 1836
26.	Michigan	Jan. 26, 1837
27.	Florida	March 3, 1845
28.	Texas	Dec. 29, 1845
29.	Iowa	Dec. 28, 1846
30.	Wisconsin	May 29, 1848
31.	California	Sept. 9, 1850
32.	Minnesota	May 11, 1858
33.	Oregon	Feb. 14, 1859
34.	Kansas	Jan. 29, 1861
35.	West Virginia	June 19, 1863
36.	Nevada	Oct. 31, 1864
37.	Nebraska	March 1, 1867
38.	Colorado	Aug. 1, 1876
39.	North Dakota	Nov. 3, 1889
40.	South Dakota	Nov. 3, 1889
41.	Montana	Nov. 8, 1889
42.	Washington	Nov. 11, 1889
43.	Idaho	July 3, 1890
44.	Wyoming	July 7, 1890

SAYINGS OF GREAT MEN.

"Don't give up the ship."—Lawrence.

"We have met the enemy, and they are ours."—Perry.

"A little more grape."—Gen. Taylor.

"We will fight it out on this line if it takes all summer."—Grant.

"I will wear them as a memento of the gratitude of princes."—Columbus.

"I thank God there are no free schools in America."—Berkeley.

"Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I his Cromwell."—Henry.

"The British ministry can read that name without spectacles. Let them double their reward."—John Hancock.

"I regret that I have but one life to give to my country."—Hale.

"My eyes have grown dim in the service of my country, but I have never doubted her justice."—Washington.

"Reformers make opinions, and opinions make parties."—Hamilton.

"I was born in America, I lived there to the prime of my life, but, alas! I can call no man in America my friend."—Arnold.

"The Union, it must and shall be preserved."—Jackson.

"I would rather be right than President."—Clay.

"Remember that Greece had her Alexander, Rome her Cæsar, France her Bonaparte. If you would escape the rock on which they split we must avoid their errors."—Clay.

"Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."—Webster.

"One on God's side is a majority."—Philips.

"Whether in chains or in laurel, liberty knows nothing but victories."—Philips.

"There can be no secession without revolution."—Webster.

"We join ourselves to no party that does not carry the flag and keep step to the music of the Union."—Choate.

"No man's vote is lost which is cast for the right."—J. Q. Adams.

"The sun is my father and the earth my mother, on her bosom I will repose."—Tecumseh.

"Ideas are the great warriors in the world."—Garfield.

"The people of the North must conquer or be conquered, there is no middle ground."—Shermam.

	Colonies.	Settlement.	Time.	Object.
1.	Virginia.	Englishmen sent by London Company.	1607	Settlement.
2.	Massachusetts.	Pilgrims at Plymouth their own authority. Puritans at Mass. Bay By council at Plymouth.	1620 1629	English customs. Religious Freedom.
3.	Maine, New Hampshire.	Mason and Gorges, stockholders in Plymouth Council. They took the North Territory. Vermont was a part of New Hampshire.	1623	Settlement.
4.	New York	Dutch. By order of West India Company. Trading Post. Actual settlement.	1613 1624	Settlement and Trade.
5.	Maryland.	Catholics. By Lord Baltimore, followed by Eng. Protestants.	1634	Religious Freedom.
6.	Connecticut.	Puritans from Massachusetts.	1635	Religious and Political Freedom, Settlem't.
7.	Rhode Island.	Roger Williams and followers.	1636	Religious and Political Freedom.
8.	Delaware.	Swedes. Conquered by Dutch.	1638 1655	Settlement.
9.	North Carolina.	Eight proprietors who sent Englishmen. There were settlers from New England, the Huguenots, Cavaliers, Scotch and Virginians.	1663	Settlement.
10.	New Jersey.	Dutch, Puritans. Quakers.	1664 1667	Settlement.
11.	South Carolina.	English, Scotch, Dutch, Huguenots.	1670	Settlement.
12.	Pennsylvania.	Quakers.	1682	Religious Freedom.
13.	Georgia.	Englishmen.	1732	Poor.

GOVERNMENT.	RELIGION.	EDUCATION.
Royal supervision by charter till 1624, then a pure Royal with Representative form till Revolution.	Church of England.	Private.
Democracy by charter, then Representative, then Royal with Representative form.	Pilgrims, Congregationalism; Puritans, First Episcopalians and then Congregationalists.	Free Schools.
New Hampshire Royal with Representative form; Maine was governed with Massachusetts till 1820; Vermont with New Hampshire till 1792.	Congregationalism.	Free Schools.
Royal through Patroon system, changed to Representative system.	Reformed Church of Holland and Methodists.	Patroon System.
Proprietary with Representative form.	Catholic and Church of England.	Private and Parochial Schools.
Charter with Representative form.	No established church. Congregationalism prevailed.	Free Schools.
Charter with Representative form.	Congregationalism.	Free Schools.
Proprietary with Representative form. First belonged to N. Y., then to Pennsylvania, 1682.	Dutch Reformed Church of Holland and Quakers.	Patroon System. Free Schools.
Proprietary till 1729 and then Royal. Representative form.	Church of England.	Private.
Proprietary till 1702 and then Royal. Representative form.	Dutch Reformed Church. Congregationalism. Quakers.	Free Schools.
Same as New Jersey.	Church of England, but others allowed.	Private.
Proprietary with Representative form.	Quaker, but any believers in Christ.	Free Schools for Poor.
Proprietary and then Royal. Representative form.	All except Catholics.	Private.

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Century, total terms in A, ...	15,621
Standard, total terms in A, ...	**19,736**

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Stormonth,	50,000
Worcester,	105,000
Webster (International),	125,000
Century (six volumes, complete),	225,000
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William Cleaver Wilkinson, Professor of Rhetoric and Criticism in Chicago University, wrote from England, after a personal interview with ***Professor Skeat,*** of Cambridge, and ***Professor Murray,*** of Oxford (the latter, editor of the great "New English Dictionary," to be completed in many volumes), as follows:

"I showed Professor Skeat sample pages of the Standard Dictionary. He looked them over with the evident interest of a practical lexicographer. . . . He approved the introduction of the phonetic element and the exhibition of the tentative scientific alphabet. He expressed the opinion that a Spelling Reform in the English language was certain to come in time, and declared his confidence in Professor March as a man thoroughly qualified to preside over this department of the Dictionary. He expressly said that you might quote him as approving the phonetic feature of the Dictionary. . . . He was highly pleased with the plan of giving exact references for the literary quotations, and expressed surprise that it could be accomplished in so little space. The Professor seemed pleased with the general look of the work.

"Dr. Murray, of Oxford University, expressly consents to be quoted publicly by you in testimony to the following points: (1) That the introduction of the phonetic element is a desirable recognition of the need of reformed spelling, and that Professor March's editorship of this department is everything that could be asked for; (2) that as a practical matter, in a popular dictionary, the 'order of usage' has the preponderance of reasons in its favor; (3) that the specimen pages of the Standard Dictionary had, on examination, appeared to him to be as well done as was practicable within the necessarily small compass."

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"I do not see why any one would buy a dictionary now without the Index."—Robert G. Ingersoll.

A SAMPLE DEFINITION.

Showing Style of Type and Illustration.

e-lec′tri-cute, ē-lec′tri-kūt, *vt.* [-cu″ted; -cu″ting.] To inflict a death penalty by means of electricity.

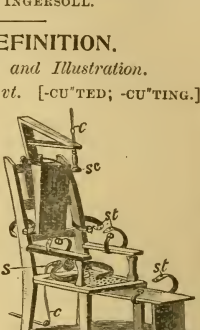
A Latin word for execute, to go with electri, or a Greek word to go with electro is wanted. The Latin word execute makes electri-execute, which would contract into *electricute.* F. A. March in *The Chautauquan* Apr., '93, p. 21.

[< *electri-* in electricity + *-cute* in execute.] **e-lec′tro-cute‡.**

—**e-lec′tri-cu″ter,** *n.* **e-lec″tri-cu′tion-er‡.**

e-lec″tri-cu′tion, ē-lec″tri-kiū′shun, *n.* Execution of a criminal by electricity. **e-lec″tro-cu′tion‡.**

Electrocution offers a far more decorous, humane, certain and painless method of doing away with murderous criminals than any other means that could be devised, and therefore *electrocution* should have a fair trial. *Illustrated Home Journal* Sept. '90, p. 4, col. 2.



Chair for Electricution of Criminals.

Details of the chair used by the State of New York: *c, c,* connections for supplying electric current; *s,* sponge applied to the small of convict's back; *sc,* sponge-cup applied to the top of the head; *st, st,* straps.

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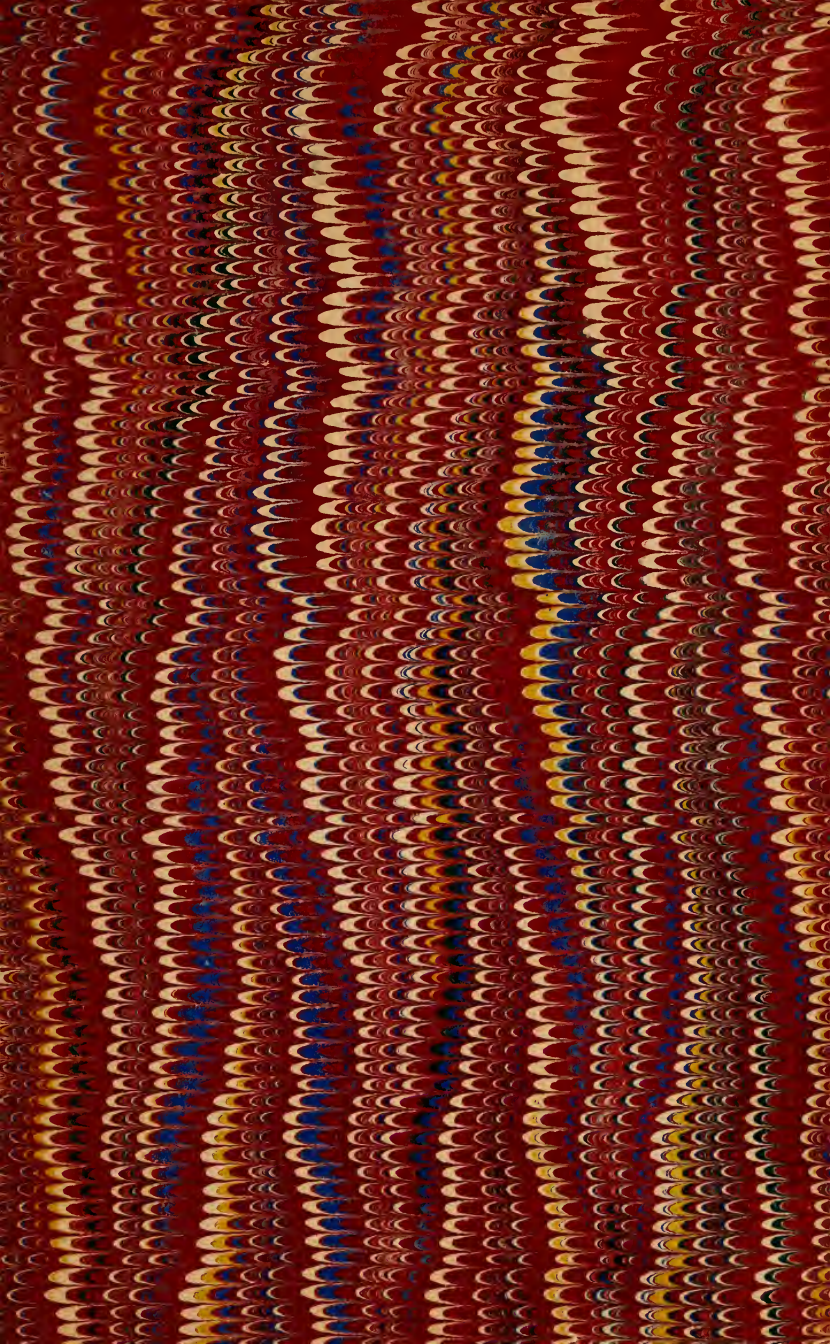

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